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**THE APPLICATION OF SOME SECOND LANGUAGE
TEACHING/LEARNING PRINCIPLES IN MULTIMEDIA LANGUAGE
DESIGN: A CASE STUDY OF A MULTIMEDIA APPROACH TO AN
UNDERGRADUATE COURSE IN SWAHILI**

**A minor dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award
of the degree of Master of Philosophy in Applied Language and Literacy Studies in the
Faculty of Humanities**

NOVEMBER 2002

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates aspects of the learning process that takes place in the Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) classroom in the Department of Linguistics and Southern African Languages at the University of Cape Town. It also studies how a small sample of students make adjustments in language learning with the help of the multimedia Swahili programme. The sample comprises four UCT learners (mixed L1's) studying a (CD-ROM) multimedia Swahili language programme. These four students were selected according to (1) regular attendance at the class; (2) attendance at all (written and oral) tests and final examinations; (3) returned questionnaire forms. Data were collected by means of tests (oral/written) and an examination prepared by the Swahili instructor. The scores are presented graphically in ways that illustrate students' learning progress. This presentation is discussed in the light of data from questionnaires and interviews, which may be regarded as having an effect on scores obtained by learners, and may provide an explanation of the learning process that took place.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful to those who offered their co-operation and assistance in the preparation of this research project. I would like to express my deep gratitude to the following:

All the students who willingly filled in the returned questionnaire, and accepted to be interviewed, for, without their contributions, this dissertation would not have been possible.

Mr Jama Zukile (the course convenor) and Dr Julian Lloyd (the Swahili multimedia instructor). Both are lecturers in the Department of Linguistics and Southern African Languages.

My supervisor Prof Douglas Young for his patience, encouragement and especially for his careful attention to the finer details of my study.

Prof Raj Mesthrie not only for his encouragement and guidance but also because he has contributed much to making Cape Town my home away from home.

The Centre for Applied Language and Literacy Studies and Services in Africa (CALLSSA), for financial assistance.

Mr Sean Bowerman for his friendly support and Ms Julie Van der Vlugt for their friendly assistance

My parents and Lea Paule Ukelle for caring for me.

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work in conception and execution. Any opinions expressed or conclusions reached are my own, unless otherwise indicated, and are not necessarily those of the University of Cape Town or CALLSSA/The School of Education. The responsibility for any errors in the final product remains, of course, my own.

Cape Town, November 2002

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS USED IN THIS DISSERTATION

Language teaching/learning

HDM Holodynamic Model

Linguistic

ESL English as Second Language
FL Foreign Language
L1 First Language
SL/L2 Second Language
SLA Second Language Acquisition
SLL Second Language Learning

Computer

CAI Computer-Aided/Assisted Instruction
CALL Computer-assisted Language Learning
CBI Computer-Based Instruction
CD-ROM Compact Disc Read Only Memory
CD-I Compact Disc-Interactive
E-MAIL Electronic Mail
Internet Interconnected Network
LAN Local Area Network
WWW World Wide Web

General

CALLSSA Centre for Applied Language and Literacy Studies and Services in Africa

UCT University of Cape Town

UNESCO United Nations Education Science and Cultural Organisation

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SYNOPSIS

The issues addressed in this dissertation are as follows:

Chapter One is an introductory chapter, which includes: setting the context of the study; the problem/situation to be researched; motivation for research; research aims; research question; and the intended outcomes of the study.

Chapter Two provides the theoretical grounding for the study, which includes: the theory discussion and a review of the literature in both CALL and SLA. The literature view establishes the link between both fields: the ultimate goal of a CALL programme is to assist the learner in the acquisition of a second language. CALL is therefore not separable from SLA, and earlier studies have tended to ignore this, having focused too much on the computer and not enough on the learner.

With the theoretical background established, the crux of this dissertation will be the presentation (see Chapter Three) and analysis of data from original research study (see Chapter Four). This dissertation applies the principles of instructed second language acquisition (SLA) to the use of computer assisted language learning materials. This is taken up in Chapters 4 and 5.

Major goals of the study are: (1) to compare communicative language teaching and learning activities as they took place in the traditional language classroom and the language laboratory, and (2) to document the case studies of four students, in order to identify key variables which affected their learning experience and consequently the success of the multimedia intervention. These are the core of the study.

Chapter Five is an interpretation of the empirical study based on findings of research in the field of second language learning (SLL) and computer assisted language learning (CALL).

Chapter Six is the concluding chapter, which attempts to synthesise the studies and theories and provides some indications for further research. I also investigate, through the case some viable alternatives for the improvement of CALL at the University of Cape Town.

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

This chapter includes the following: (1) setting the context of the study; (2) the problem/situation to be researched; (3) motivation for research; (4) research aims; (5) research questions; (6) intended outcomes of the study

1.1. Setting the context of the study

The use of computers has made a tremendous impact at all levels of society. This impact has been particularly strong within the field of education with the introduction of computers in classroom instruction. Educational software is available in a variety of content areas in support of traditional school curricular areas such as mathematics, languages, science, and social studies. CAI was the acronym used for “computer-assisted instruction” or “computer-aided instruction” in the United States of America. The link between “assisted” and “aided” represent various degrees of control by the computer on behalf of the teacher. In Britain, the acronym CAL was used for “computer-assisted learning” before it started gaining ground in the United States, especially in the field of English as foreign and second language (Ahmad 1986: 3). The current acronym CALL, used for “computer-assisted language learning” in terms of the various roles played by the computer, refers to the significant areas of innovations in the field of Language Learning and Technology (Warschauer 2000: 1).

As the use of computers proliferates and their capabilities grow, an increasing number of software packages have become available. More recently multimedia has been associated with technologies such as CD-ROM (Compact Disc Read Only Memory), CD-I (Compact Disc-Interactive) and the World Wide Web (WWW), irrespective of the material they contain. In this study I simply use the term “multimedia” to be a way of presenting learning materials involving different media within a computer environment, including, for example, speech or other sounds, drawings or animated drawings or

diagrams, still photographs or other images, video clips, and text that is the printed word. The key difference between video and multimedia would be its interactive nature.

The use of multimedia holds considerable promise, especially in the field of language learning and technology. But research in the area of multimedia is still limited regarding the translation of existing second language acquisition (SLA) research and theories into multimedia technology. However, with regard to computer-assisted language learning (CALL), even though much remains to be learned about second language acquisition (SLA), existing research can provide guidance to designers and evaluators of CALL.

The dissertation attempts to connect two discrete disciplines which include: the field of second language acquisition (SLA) research and theories and the area of computer-assisted language learning (CALL). The main goals of the dissertation are to compare communicative language teaching and learning activities as they take place in the traditional language classroom and the language laboratory, and to document the case studies of four students, in order to identify key variables which affect their learning experience and consequently the success of the multimedia intervention.

1.2. The problem/situation to be researched

This study is an investigation of UCT (mixed first languages/L1's) learners, using a (CD-ROM) multimedia Swahili programme as part of their first year course in 2001 in the Department of Southern African Languages. In total there were ten students but I will focus on four of them for reasons outlined subsequently in this dissertation (see pp. 3 and pp.40-42). These students registered for the Swahili Intensive Programme during the first semester of the 2001 academic year. Only four students were selected according to (1) regular attendance at the class; (2) attendance at all (written and oral) tests and final examinations; (3) returned questionnaire forms; (4) attendance at individual interviews.

The following brief profile of learners includes: age; gender; nationality; first language; other language experience; level of education or degree; reasons for doing the Swahili language course; style of learning; responses to the programme. All four learners are involved in the Swahili Intensive Programme for various reasons, outlined below.

In order to protect the privacy of the subjects they will be called: student 1, student 2, student 3, and student 4.

Student 1 is a 23 year old, European female, German first language speaker, who also speaks English and French, has completed her first degree in Anthropology, is familiar with European culture, is interested in East Africa, and is involved in the Swahili Intensive Programme because she intends to travel in East Africa.

Student 2 is a 20 year old, African female, Sotho first language speaker, who also speaks Venda, Xhosa, Zulu and English, is a first year student in mainstream Foreign Language Studies, has chosen to learn Swahili as part of her curriculum because “it is an African language spoken from outside South Africa; it is a foreign African language of wider communication in East Africa”.

Student 3 is a 21 year old, African female Xhosa first language speaker, who also speaks Zulu and English, is a first year student in mainstream Bachelor of Arts, has chosen to learn Swahili as part of her curriculum because “it is the only African language which is taught at UCT which is not a South African language”.

Student 4 is a 22 year old, African male Kenyan-born with English as a first language, who is a first year Bachelor of Science in Engineering student who intends to work in Kenya after graduation, and has chosen to learn Swahili because “it is a requirement in many professional areas”.

For the purpose of this study I have followed all the prescribed steps regarding the subjects enrolled in the Swahili programme. Although the programme began with 10 students, only four students were selected as a representative sample for investigation. The other six students were excluded from the sample, because firstly, they did not attend the classes regularly; secondly, they did not attend all written and oral tests and final examinations; and finally they did not return the questionnaire forms to me.

1.3. Motivation for research

The development of multimedia language programmes draws on various principles from general ones underlying the teaching and learning of a language to specific ones encountered by language teachers and developers and users of multimedia language programmes. It is important to look at ways for improving the technological translations of existing language learning research and theories into the multimedia technology. The underlying motivation for this research is to study how students make adjustments in their learning of Swahili with the support of the multimedia Swahili programme. Since this is a newly developed language programme, it is important to assess its efficiency at this early stage.

1.4. Research aims

The aims of this study are as follows:

- To establish differences and similarities of language teaching/learning activities between the traditional language classroom and the multimedia language laboratory;
- To determine language teaching/learning approaches and their implications for the implementation of the multimedia Swahili programme;
- To identify variables in learners' learning performances outcomes and variables, as well as their significance in the success or failure of the implementation of the multimedia Swahili programme;
- To find "viable alternatives" for the improvement of CALL at the University of Cape Town.

This study is important, in that it reviews previous contributions from research in foreign and second language learning/teaching, sociolinguistics, computer-assisted language learning and second language acquisition, and relates these to this study. Professionals from these areas should find suggestions for further studies. Finally, applied language

specialists, teachers, teacher trainers, methodologists, curriculum specialists, textbook writers, and researchers in second and foreign language teaching and learning should benefit from what is reviewed and reported on regarding CALL approaches to learning Swahili.

1.5. Research question

How can the UCT multimedia Swahili programme mediate students' learning performances and their learning behaviours in ways that contribute towards the formation of a model of teaching/learning?

1.6. Intended outcomes of the study

Students' learning, performance outcomes and variables from the findings include: (1) previous language experience; (2) interest in the course; (3) styles of learning; (4) learning strategies; (5) attitudes towards the course; (6) responses to the programme.

This chapter has dealt with setting the context of the study; the problem or situation to be researched; the motivation for research; the research aims; the research question; and the intended outcomes of the study. The following chapter will review relevant theory and literature in this area.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORY AND LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter comprises four sections as follows:

Section One: theoretical perspectives in CALL: the “tutor” model; the “stimulus” model; and the “integrative” model.

Section Two: literature review on CALL: studies of individual differences; learners’ strategy; interlanguage;

Section three: literature review on language teaching/learning: teaching skills and competencies; relevant communicative models in the traditional language classroom; and ESL/FL/SL teaching/learning goals;

Section Four: how CALL can enhance SL/FL pedagogy and learning?: example of the Swahili multimedia;

Section Five: definitions of key concepts (at end of chapter).

2.1. Theoretical perspectives in CALL

CALL development in language teaching/learning is an area of concern to researchers with a special interest in the field of education in general, and particularly in language teaching and learning. In this chapter I will present a brief overview of the underlying theoretical perspectives on using computers for language teaching/learning. The Swahili materials suggest three overlapping models which include: the “tutor”, “stimulus” and “integrative” models related to recent developments in the multimedia technology (Warschauer 1998)¹.

2.1.1. The “tutor” model

The model of the computer as a tutor was based on behaviourist theories of learning. Computer programmes using this model involved repetitive language drills and practices. In this model, computers served as a means to providing instructional materials to the

¹ Paper retrieved November 27, 2001 from the World Wide Web: <http://www.gse.uci.edu/markw/call.html>

students. The underlying principle in the model of the computer as a tutor was that a repeated exposure to the same learning materials was helpful and even necessary to language learning. Thus, the use of computers was ideal for carrying out repeated drills, since computers do not get bored as teachers would in their presentations of the same material. Also, the computer programme could provide immediate feedback without judging the learner. Computers could present such learning materials on an individualised learner basis which allowed learners to proceed at their own pace providing them with time for other activities. Based on these notions, examples from Swahili materials are given as follows:

Each lesson contains exercises in **pronunciation** and **conversation** and carries a number of “pages” of **grammatical** notes. The learner will type in his / her answers to the exercises. However, the use of drill facilities is limited in terms of the quality and quantity of learning. Types of presentations and responses are limited as well as the ability to read the written and spoken language and understand a variety of meanings related to words. Also the uncompromising right / wrong approach from the use of the programme is a limitation to communicative exercises.

The computer was also defined as “magister” and “pedagogue” and was based on pedagogical approaches to CALL. The computer was called “magister” for directing or guiding the students in their learning process and “pedagogue” for assisting the students in their learning process (Chapelle 2000: 206).

2.1.2. The “stimulus” model

In this model of the computer as “stimulus”, different types of CALL programmes were developed and used. CALL programmes were aimed at stimulating students’ participation in CALL activities (e.g. voice recording). However, computer programmes used for these purposes were not specifically designed for language learning. For example, a recorder unit in the Swahili materials only allows the learner to record his / her own voice and play it back to compare it graphically with standards based on the recorded voices of native speakers, which are built into the lesson. The Swahili materials simulate language use, but are still limited in processing the speech input of learner’s real

use of the language in the learning process. The learner can't have a real conversation with the programme.

2.1.3. The “integrative” model

The integrative model for CALL is based on recent major developments in computer technology which include multimedia networked computing and the internet.

The only integrative use of CALL in the Swahili materials was the integrated use of multimedia. Internet and networked communication were not exploited.

Multimedia technologies allow a variety of media including text, graphics, sound, animation, and video which are accessible on a single computer machine. Multimedia is an even more powerful technology because it also involves “hypermedia” (hypermedia resources are linked together in such a way that learners can navigate by clicking a mouse). The use of the Swahili materials in language learning successfully:

- Creates real learning environments in which listening and seeing are combined.
- Combines in a single activity various skills (e.g. listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and technological tools (e.g. video, audio, sound);
- Provides simulated native-speaker models of the target language;
- Encourages the learners to explore and re-create the language for themselves and actively participate in their own individual learning processes;
- Provides possibilities for learners to read, write, and listen through its component features;
- Enables students' control over their own individual learning, as they proceed at their own pace and along an individual path. They can navigate forwards and backwards through different components, and they can select or skip particular aspects of the programme.
- Facilitates a focus on the content while also focusing on language form or learning strategies. For example, while the main lesson is in the forefront, students can also access various backdrop links allowing quick access to grammatical explanations or exercises, vocabulary gloss, pronunciation

information which encourage students towards their own relevant learning strategy.

Although the Swahili programme successfully incorporate various elements of both the Swahili materials and the course, some of its limitations are as follows:

- The Swahili programme is still under development. It is not technologically fully interactive; for example, it does not yet provide any possibility for teachers to incorporate new lessons to its contents.
- Its current stage of development does not cover the whole language teaching / learning curriculum and it is not a self-sufficient methodology of language teaching / learning.
- The Swahili programme does not utilise networked communication
- A more fundamental problem is that the Swahili programme at its current stage of development is not yet fully interactive. It cannot understand a user's spoken input and evaluate the correct and appropriate forms used. It cannot spot a student's problems with pronunciation, syntax, or usage; because it is not sophisticated enough to decide among various possibilities which would be presented by a real-world situation. These are, however, included in its database, which provides alternatives (e.g. paraphrase, synonyms) as background explanations.

Multimedia technology as it existed in earlier multimedia programmes only partially contributed to integrative CALL. The use of multimedia involved an integration of skills such as, for example, listening with reading or listening and seeing. A major technological development in multimedia could be the integration of meaningful and authentic communication into all aspects of the language teaching/learning curriculum.

Networked uses

The development of multimedia technology in relation to the personal and networked computers has taken the various roles of earlier computer programmes far beyond the earlier "electronic workbook" kind of software programmes which dominated the field of second and foreign language teaching business for many years (Kern 2000: 13). New developments of the computer technology have offered these perspectives:

Given the theoretical grounding of the dissertation in SLA, the discussion on the use of synchronous and asynchronous networked communicative activities for language learning. Synchronous (simultaneous conversations take place in real time) and asynchronous (the conversation is delayed) are two main aspects of networked communicative activities (e.g. Warschauer 1998; Kern 2000; Davis 2000; Pellettieri 2000; Shetzer 2000 and Zähler 2000).

In the use of synchronous networked communicative activities, all users are logged on and they can exchange ideas or opinions simultaneously in real time. Individuals all around the world can communicate simultaneously on the basis of “one-to-one communication” or “one-to-many communication” (Kern 2000: 12). Language learners can communicate with other learners or speakers of the language being learned. Synchronous, networked communicative activities focus on individual participation using language (oral or written) to share their ideas or opinions and facilitate their collaborative reading and writing. Some limitations relate to the use of simplified words and sentences. Examples of synchronous activities are carried out via internet forums, instant messaging and webcam.

In the use of asynchronous networked communicative activities, individuals mostly communicate via email, thus the conversation is not simultaneous. Messages are directed to individual mailboxes. These require people to log on to their sites on the network to read their email messages. Asynchronous communicative activities for language learning offer opportunities for an authentic writing (e.g. assignments), for authentic language use in writing with native speakers or other learners of the language being learned. Learners can also participate in collaborative projects. Limitations to the uses of email in language learning relates to the fact that communication mostly take place outside class hours (Warschauer 1998: 62).

The development and use of the wide range of networked communication activities in CALL laboratories have facilitated the use of meaningful and authentic communication into all aspects of the language learning curriculum. Since networked interaction constitutes a major point of theoretical connection between SLA and CALL, this

dissertation avoids relying on the limited capacities of the computer for human-computer interaction by addressing the instructional design of the course as a whole, rather than merely the computer-based materials.

2.2. Literature review on CALL

In general, earlier CALL teaching / learning purposes and aims consisted of a variety of pedagogical activities which focused on various roles to be played by the computer. These roles originated from the mainframe computer as a tutor (delivering language drills or skill practice) and the computer as a stimulus (stimulating learners' participation in their learning processes). Therefore CALL research methodological choices suggest that computer software programmes served various functions in foreign language learning classrooms, and could not be evaluated in terms of a unique methodological principle.

However, these attempts to consider the computer as a method of instruction became problematic in their theoretical approaches. On the one hand, researchers focused on the computer as a tool, and the technological performance of the programme, while neglecting important evidence for the quality of instruction in second language learning. On the other hand, they compared and studied methods relying on the assumption that the computer itself, as a technological innovation, was a method of instruction that could substitute for a (human) teacher. For example, in this approach, the computer was treated as a method of instruction in the specific area of second language acquisition research. CALL researchers attempted to implement in their activities those features which were theorised to facilitate instructed second language acquisition (Chapelle 2000: 212).

These methodological choices suggest that computer software programmes served various functions in foreign language learning classrooms, and could not be evaluated in terms of one unique methodological principle. Therefore, systematic CALL research should try to evaluate principles and techniques regarding the different types of CALL software programmes developed.

Given the theoretical grounding of present studies in SLA, evaluation methods will develop based on existing research on the computer and the learner in educational

environments which include: (1) individual differences; (2) learners' strategy; (3) classroom discourse; (4) interlanguage; (5) issues around language teaching/learning.

2.2.1. Studies of individual differences

Individual differences in second language acquisition research, such as motivation to study the second language, learning strategy and previous exposure to the second language were known to play a role in language teaching and learning. These could provide some guidance for the study of CALL activities as a practical means of providing individual instruction that was beneficial for specific types of learners (e.g. Chapelle 2000, and see pp 51-2 of the dissertation).

2.2.2. Learners' strategy research

Psycholinguistic investigations were conducted to address issues about language processing and learning conditions. Examples of research into learners' strategies are as follows:

- (i) Studies investigating psycholinguistic issues about language processing (e.g. Hulstijn 1993) were based on ESL learners' reading processes through data gathered as they worked with an on-line dictionary (Chapelle 2000: 214). They found that learners were able to improve their reading processes by using the online dictionary.
- (ii) A study focusing on learners' automaticity (e.g. Hagen 1994) was inferred from response-time data in the judgement of grammatical tasks (Chapelle 2000: 215). Learners using CALL were faster in response to these tasks than traditional SLL students.
- (iii) Another study (e.g. Jamieson and Chapelle 1987) was based on the monitoring of learners' strategies through the collection of error data from dictation tasks (Chapelle 2000: 215). Learners were given dictation tasks containing deliberate errors, and were able to correct them.

2.2.3. Interlanguage studies

Interlanguage studies provided guidance to CALL researchers who were studying within the tradition of interlanguage research. CALL researchers used the computer to collect linguistic data from language learners. Examples of interlanguage research:

- (i) The collection of linguistic data (e.g. Chapelle and Jamieson 1981) based on studies of ESL spelling errors (Chapelle 2000: 214). This study was used to document the most common type of spelling error in the interlanguage.
- (ii) A study of the acquisition of German syntax (e.g. Garrett 1982) based on the collection of linguistic data in learning German in the classroom (Chapelle 2000: 214). The aim of this study was to examine the development of sentence construction in the second language.
- (iii) In a study based on learners' lexical development (e.g. Bland, Noblitt, Armington and Gay 1990), researchers used learners' queries to create an on-line dictionary as an indicator of their lexical development. The linguistic data was collected while learners were focused on constructing meaningful texts during a class assignment (Chapelle 200: 214).

CALL has moved from "computer as tutor" model to the networked model which emphasises student communication. This move was made necessary by findings in research into SLA.

This review of literature on CALL has revealed different approaches used by researchers in their attempts to evaluate CALL programmes, based on pedagogical activities. These outline a shift from the perception of the computer as an 'instructor' (tutor / pedagogue) to a more communicative approach, which is grounded in findings from SLA research. This shift allowed the learning of communication skills (i.e. speaking and listening, as opposed to merely academic skills) to be more effective. Since networked interaction constitutes a major point of theoretical connection between SLA and CALL, this study

will address issues around language teaching / learning in the traditional classroom, paying particular attention to communicative activities which are relevant to CALL.

2.3. Literature review on language teaching/learning

Given the theoretical grounding of this dissertation in SLA, it is particularly important to discuss issues around instructed second language acquisition which includes: (1) teaching skills and competencies; (2) relevant communicative models in the traditional language learning classroom; and (3) ESL/FL/SL learning/teaching goals.)

2.3.1. Teaching skills and competencies

Language teaching means different things to different people. The emphasis on communication as the primary goal in language teaching / learning leads to the development of methods and techniques that illustrate different roads to the same goal. Earlier language teaching research defined “teaching” as “a facilitative activity” and distinguished it from essential components and teaching conventions (Alatis 1981: 3). Teaching from previous decades suggests language teaching as “any activity on the part of a person intended to facilitate the learning by another person of a second language, which is not his or her native one” (Altman 1981: 5). “Teaching” may be one of the few professions which requires a “learner” or a “recipient” (inductive approach) for its action. But the term “learner” is not always appropriate in referring, for example, to the “recipient” learning through research experiments in a medicine research laboratory where s/he learns deductively (Altman 1981: 7).

Some of the pedagogical challenges of the objectives of language instruction suit the construction of teaching and learning materials. There is little doubt that these challenges continue to make new demands upon the skills and competencies in new teaching requirement related to the teacher’s role in second language teaching. The language teachers in previous decades focused on the means and ends and provided little flexibility with the course. However the 1970’s learner-centred instruction provided far more options including learners’ learning experiences, and they were able to attend multiple-section courses which served research purposes in which learners’ achievements were

measured. The goal of teaching is learning; hypotheses concerning teaching must ultimately be related to hypotheses about how learning takes place. Are foreign languages learned in the same ways as other school subjects are learned?

Instead of simply studying teacher-learner interactions on the effects of teaching-learning procedures and learning outcomes, the researcher must also take into account specific learning behaviours that account for students' learning processes. This is particularly important for language teaching-learning research, as it holds out promise for progress in foreign and second language instruction (Politzer 1981: 32).

2.3.2 Relevant communicative models in the traditional language classroom

One of the major insights in formal language teaching/learning research is that the primary focus of activity in the second language classroom today should be based on genuine communication rather than just on the simulation of dialogues which was the dominant mode in language classrooms many years ago. A combination of both the behaviourism and cognitive learning principles suggests the Holodynamic Model (HDM) as a relevant model of communication in the traditional language classroom. The Holodynamic Model considers personality characteristics in the language learning process (Titone 1981: 67). In this model, the students' perceptions of their learning and needs are carefully drafted, sensitively interpreted through research. Researchers have concluded that certain personality characteristics, such as self-confidence and lack of anxiety, predict success. Individual learners with more self-confidence and motivation will interact more and acquire more input for their language learning process (Krashen 1981: 101). In other words, relevant information supporting language learning are determined by the learner's affective filter (this refers to the role of motivation and personality factors in the eventual success or failure to learn, and the ability of learners to self-edit their language output).

Individual learners receive different amounts of comprehensible input depending on their filter strengths, personality rates and the source of the input. Although the adult filter is higher than the child's, filter strength is variable, and teachers can do a great deal to keep

the filter as low as possible. Learners can make a small, but significant effort by consciously monitoring their learning process. Teachers can provide, for example, vocabulary items of the target language that learners have acquired for a review of their learning process (Krashen 1981: 107). Current communicative language teaching-learning theories suggest that language learning occurs when learners are not focusing on language as such, but rather when they are using language to communicate. The learning process of a second language is one that involves a total commitment from the learner. A total physical, intellectual, and emotional response is necessary to successfully send and receive linguistic messages. Language is connected to every aspect of human behaviour. Therefore, it is difficult to isolate the components of the second language learning process; and it is even more difficult to treat one of those components, such as the affective domain (factors including empathy, self-esteem, extroversion, inhibition, imitation, anxiety, attitudes), without reference to other domains, many of which are dealt with in this study.

Language teaching/learning legitimates three different approaches which are the L approach (L for linguistic) and the P approach (P for psychological or pedagogical). All claim to offer an approach to communication which reconciles and combines psychology and pedagogy (Stern 1981: 134). In addition to these, I shall look briefly at

The linguistic approach

The linguistic approach is the continuation of the linguistic, analytical and formal efforts made by structural linguists' views of language, first reflected by Bloomfield, one of the researchers in this field between 1950 and 1965. The self-imposed restrictions of American linguistics provided the intellectual climate for a socialistic or functional view of language. Another American linguist, Dell Hymes (1970), developed his "communicative competence" theory as a response to Chomsky's concept of "linguistic competence" in American linguistics. Therefore, it was not surprising that leading British applied linguists, Firth and Halliday cited in Stern (1981), took a more semantic and social view of language. At the same time, the communicative approach was being

developed by Widdowson (1978), who points out that “the language should be presented in such a way as to reveal its character as communication” (Widdowson 1979: 125).

Firth and Halliday’s ideas were not necessarily based upon thematic or grammatical sequencing criteria, nor on situational or semantic syllabi. Rather than concentrating on communicative skills development, their Linguistic approach focuses on the language system and the development of an academic knowledge of the target language. The European project developed and initiated the linguistic approach through the participation of a number of European countries. The European project was different from those of the 1960s which had a structural linguistic emphasis. Although structural and grammatical approaches were still used in the language communicative classrooms, the European project focused on a linguistic analysis of the learners’ learning needs (Stern 1981: 135). This provided new curriculum principles and the inventory of notions, functions and discourse features.

The pedagogical/psychological approach

In the pedagogical approach, the full competence of the native speaker is characteristic of his/her intuitive use of the language for communication. The exposure of language learners to real communication, as an authentic direct experience, is deliberately and systematically built into the learning experience at a very early stage of their language learning process. The emphasis on communicative activities as part of pedagogy was, for example, advocated by an experimental study by Sandra Savignon (1972). Likewise, Dobson (1978) advocated communicative practices in bilingual-oriented schooling in French immersion programmes first introduced in Montreal. “Immersion” was described as the deliberate and artificial creation of a second language environment in which the students displayed a genuine interest in the communicative language teaching-learning classroom and became increasingly independent in the target language (Stern 1981: 138).

Combining the linguistic and pedagogical approaches

The pedagogical approach to a participant experience in communicative activities emphasises the ego involvement of the learner. The linguistic approach involves

objective language study and systematic analysis. The pedagogical approach involves the language use with real speakers of the target language. A synthesis of the linguistic and pedagogical approaches suggests Allen's (1980) combination of structural and functional components in relation to both the linguistic and pedagogical approaches. Language learning/teaching operates through cognitive study methods and practices, and diversifies what the structural approach of the 1960s had initiated. The third element, the experiential approach, introduced aspects of authentic participation which had not been previously integrated in most foreign language instruction curricula. Neither the linguistic nor the pedagogical approaches paid sufficient attention to the social, cultural and linguistic advances in language use. Language learning as a personal experience operates in a sociocultural context, modifying current essential interpretations of "communicative competence" which include the following aspects: structural; functional; sociocultural; and experiential. The three former are related to language use and practice and the latter is related to language use in an authentic context (Stern 1981: 143). Communicative competence, then, can be defined as 'the knowledge and ability involved in putting language to communicative use' (Hymes, cited in Widdowson (1998:126). The development of the competence to use language takes place within the 'developmental matrix' in which a knowledge of the sentences of a language develops (Hymes, cited in Widdowson (1998: 95).

2.3.3. ESL/FL/SL teaching/learning goals

Language teaching goals were established with the help of sociolinguistic information on the role of the second and foreign languages within the context they were taught, as well as language teachers' and learners' perceptions of language teaching goals and information on resources available. A distinction between formal and informal learning is necessary to understand language learning in and out of classrooms. Informal language learning takes place within the context of social interaction, without the articulation of formal rules. But formal language teaching/learning often emphasises the code, rather than the content of communication, and hence, it may be relatively non-transferable to situations outside the language classroom. Foreign and second languages are best learned as the product of communicative interaction between a learner and a native speaker. Such

interaction was not available in the foreign language classrooms of the past; but many people did succeed in learning foreign languages through formal language teaching. Foreign and second language teaching approaches tried to adapt formal language teaching to informal language learning, and taught specific language contents through the second or foreign language rather than teaching grammatical or other teaching points. Language teaching approaches involved the learning of the language through its integration into job-skill programmes, or through communication for problem solving and information-seeking (Richards 1978: 11). The research in this area became a growing body of empirical investigation of individual, social, cognitive, cultural, and pedagogical variables which influenced the acquisition, and the use of second and foreign languages. A number of key issues that have emerged from studies on foreign and second language by Richards (1978) can be summarised as follows:

- There is a need for classroom activities in second and foreign classes to be organised so that language learning becomes the outcome of doing things, performing tasks, solving problems, communicating about real content, interacting with both teacher and peers, and discussing a variety of instructional techniques and activities which have been used in the classroom,
- Successful second and foreign language learning results from a convergence of factors such as positive language teachers and learners, and instructional and social teaching methods, though none of these factors in isolation can guarantee successful language learning,
- Foreign language teaching involves understanding how the target language reflects the codes as vehicles for social interaction. It should lead to a better understanding of the relative importance of linguistic, cognitive, social, psychological, and pedagogical factors,
- Language teaching and language learning research complement each other. Research in language teaching is concerned with procedures intended to produce desired ends. Second and foreign language learning research is concerned with

explaining how and why particular ends (e.g. performing tasks, solving problems) result from the language learning process,

- Knowing how to ask questions appropriately in different social situations is an important part of the language learning process.

It should be stressed that the problems involved in the acquisition, learning and use of second and foreign languages are not merely academic. Therefore, there is room for either researchers or language teachers to recognise that attempts to understand the nature of second and foreign language learning are ongoing processes which require the revision and the rejection of hypotheses as research proceeds, and as further factors come to light. At the same time, the present case study in its own right is an attempt to understand the learning behaviour of an individual or group of individuals, based on non-linguistic criteria.

The existence of a learner's separate linguistic system is referred to as "interlanguage". This is "the language learner's system of language intermediates between the native and target languages" (Brown 1994: 203). Language learners do not all speak the same interlanguage; their language learning behaviour is far from being heterogeneous, and their linguistic systems cannot adequately be described by means of categorical rules favoured by linguists. As a consequence, linguists have been forced to invent such fictional language learners as "ideal speaker-hearers in a homogenous society" in order to accommodate their data to their theories (Corder 1978: 73). This language system then is a static system, and when linguists have been forced to deal with obvious dynamic phenomena, they have, until very recently at least, done so by positing a sequence of static but overlapping grammatical systems.

It is in this way that attempts have been made to cope with the essentially dynamic nature of interlanguage. These attempts deal with an evolving series of approximate systems, each of them being more similar to the target, and accounting for the dynamic process of language learning stages. The identification of one language learning stage or system as separate from the next is arbitrary, for the interlanguage system is in a sense an

intermediate system between the first and the second language. A concomitant term referring to the nature of the continuum that is used is “approximative system”; it considers learning as a “movement through a series of stages, and occurs along some sort of continuum with an unspecified nature in the direction of the target language” (Corder 1978: 74).

This suggests that second language learning resembles, in some respects, the acquisition of the mother tongue, which is quite obviously a “process of increasing complexification of the child’s language”. Such a “continuum of increasing complexity” is called a “recreation/developmental continuum” (Corder 1978: 76). In this sense, the post-pidgin continuum (the developmental sequence followed by a pidgin language in the course of acquiring native speakers, during its development into Creole) also follows a continuum of increasing complexity. There is, however, some doubt as to the existence of post-pidgin continua. The question that immediately comes to mind is whether interlanguage does indeed follow a continuum of increasing complexity, and what its point of departure is. This suggests that second language learners start from scratch and that they are in effect learning all over again. Does the fact that learners already possess a language and that they are users of other languages count for nothing in their learning processes?

Interestingly, important generalisations of the notion of “increasing complexity” were made in learners’ interlanguage grammars at various points along changes or developments. These referred to the hypothesis of the “built-in syllabus”. Such studies in language teaching syllabi were not based on any understanding of the developmental process of natural language learning. Although they represented what the attempts to teach were, they did not follow up on what was learned. The “built-in syllabus” hypothesis claims that “all learners having a particular mother tongue will follow approximately the same sequence in the learning of a second language” (Corder 1978: 77). This relates to the notion of a restructuring continuum and supports the “built-in syllabus” hypothesis. Both are not necessarily mutually exclusive, and it is possible that certain aspects of the mother tongue do play a role in the second language learning process and others do not. For instance, some children or adult learners in a free learning situation follow a “recreation continuum”, while adult learners under formal instruction

follow a “restructuring continuum” in their learning processes. It is further possible that second language learning is both a “process of restructuring and complexification”, a starting point other than zero which is a more basic and universal system of language development. The speed of development of some features of the mother tongue at specific points is implicit in the notion that all human beings share the same language learning sequences when faced with similar learning tasks, and they will tend to find similar solutions to deal with problems they encounter in their language learning processes. Indeed, language learning (as all kinds of learning) develops within certain limits by the inherent properties of the human mind (Corder 1978: 78).

The view of language learning indicated above is that of the cognitive process whereby the learner, through interacting with his/her environment, creates for him/herself an internal representation, or hypothesis, about the nature of that environment. In the case of language learning, the learner interacts with his/her linguistic environment. This means that learning results from interaction with native speakers of the language. Anyone with whom learners interact linguistically in writing or speech provides the data upon which their learning capacities operate. Second language learners have a more or less developed view of the non-linguistic environment, and they also possess an internal representation of their mother tongue environments which they use to process the data of any other language being learned, following a restructuring continuum in their learning process. Language learners engage in the task of creating for themselves an adequate interlanguage to fit the perceived facts of the target language. But learners only achieve (e.g. their communicative intent) if this process works. The intentions of the learners in communicating with speakers of the target language are to test their interlanguage grammar. Learners’ interactions cover a whole range of functions and types of discourse served by the mother tongue. This is sometimes called the “authentic communicative activity” (Corder 1978: 80). Discourse inside the classroom is also authentic but has the very limited function of instruction among many other functions of discourse in society. It also bears little relation to natural discourse beyond the classroom.

2.4. How can CALL enhance SL/FL pedagogy and learning?

Given the theoretical grounding of the dissertation in SLA, I will address the instructional design of the course as a whole, rather than merely the computer-based materials. This section provides an understanding of some pedagogical and learning possibilities embedded in the multimedia Swahili materials.

2.4.1. Example of the Swahili multimedia

*Tuseme KiSwahili*² (Let's talk Swahili) is a (CD-ROM) multimedia language programme which is currently undergoing development. It used as part of first year course in the Department of Southern African Languages at the University of Cape Town. The programme implements multimedia materials on a LAN server in the language laboratory. These materials are used for improving traditional language learning skills including listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension, and writing, as well as communicative competence

Components are a limited number of 5 lessons designed to teach the Swahili language to the beginner. Each lesson contains exercises in **pronunciation** and **conversation** and carries a number of "pages" of **grammatical** notes. The learner/ user will type in his/ her answers to the exercises. A **vocabulary** appropriate to each lesson is displayed at selected positions. Each lesson ends with a display of **cultural** content. These different activities presented are in different modes (text, graphics, sound). Information presented in different modes in the Swahili materials are intended to implement principles of interface design which sustains learner's cognitive processes in second language learning. These components activities are aimed to create a learning environment in which learners engage in meaningful real-life activities on a learner-computer interaction basis.

Learners access information in different modes and they can decide for themselves different ways to respond. A variety of tools are implemented as learners are completing their various tasks. As learners accomplish their tasks, they create a database of

²Information retrieved November 22, 2001 from website:
<http://users.mweb.co.za/j/jlloyd/tusemeweb/Page2.html>

information which is recorded and filed. Each lesson contains a test module, which comprises five multiple-choice type questions, which are marked and scored at the end. Feedback is provided for each selection made.

2.4.2. Swahili materials as learning tool

The Swahili materials incorporate a number of tools including listening, speaking, reading, writing tools and other tools which provide access to cultural information. Writing tools include a number of **dictation** modules where the learner/user will type in what s/he hears when a mother tongue speaker enunciates short sentences. Listening tools provide access to audio recordings of various texts and information. A **recorder** unit allows the learner to record his/her own voice and play it back to compare it with the course presenters' voices. Reading tools include an on-line glossary is provided for any words the students do not know. The glossary is more expansive than the vocabularies, and includes synonyms, paraphrases, etc. The server creates a file in which information about an individual learner is collected and stored. Each lesson contains a test module, which comprises five multiple-choice type questions, which are marked and scored at the end. Feedback is provided for each selection made. A log-in screen is provided for use in educational institutions, which records test marks and students' progress in a tutor-accessible file.

Interactive audio source provides for the use of audio lessons in an interactive presentation. Instant access is available to audio material stored on the Swahili materials to teach and test active listening skills. For example, each lesson contains exercises in **pronunciation** and **conversation** and carries a number of "pages" of **grammatical** notes. The learner will type in his/ her answers to the exercises. But the use of drill facilities is limited in terms of the quality and quantity of learning. Types of presentations and responses are limited as well as the ability to read the written and spoken language and understand a variety of meanings related to words. Also the uncompromising right/wrong approach from the use of the programme is a limitation to communicative exercises.

A recorder unit allows the learner to record his/her own voice and play it back to compare it with the built-in course presenter' voice. The Swahili programme allows the learner to

simulate language use on a learner-computer interaction basis. But there are still some limitations in processing learner's speech input in conversation activities.

Visual information or activities are displayed on the computer screen (see Appendix B). For example, a **vocabulary** appropriate to each lesson is displayed at selected positions, and each lesson ends with a display of **cultural** content. The long lists of words, as well as reading and talking skills can be learnt easily. The Swahili programme enables the learner to build up mnemonic approaches (the power of the human brain) for meaningful retention of, for example, a list of words. These are successfully retrieved when needed to help the learner grasp the intended meaning of words he encounters.

The Swahili materials are user-friendly. The computer's display allows students to view their responses in a visual, aesthetically pleasing way. Students can practice their tactile skills as they type commands and responses into the computer. Students learn the language and the demands of computer technology without pressure while they simultaneously enjoy learning academic subjects through the computer.

With the development of networked computers, the computer is no longer used mainly as a tool to process and display information. Instead, the main role of a computer is now to process and *communicate* information. The Swahili materials do not yet utilise networked communication which includes the use of synchronous and asynchronous networked communicative activities for language learning (via email, internet, instant messaging, and webcam). These networked uses are not exploited in the Swahili materials.

2.5. Definitions of key concepts

2.5.1. Key concepts in CALL

Computer Assisted Language Learning (**CALL**) is most currently used term computer applications in the field of Language learning and Technology.

Computer-based instruction (**CBI**) computer-assisted instruction (**CAI**), and computer-assisted learning (**CAL**) are acronyms used refer to computers for teaching purposes. But

many teaching approaches used in CBI include drill and practice, tutorial, simulation, problem solving, and instructional games.

The term **multimedia** to be defined as a way of presenting learning materials involving different media within a computer environment, including, for example, speech or other sounds, drawings or animated drawings or diagrams, still photographs or other images, video clips, and text that is the printed word. The key difference between video and multimedia would be its interactive nature. Multimedia is an even more powerful technology because it also involves **hypermedia** (hypermedia resources are linked together in such a way that learners can navigate by clicking a mouse).

Electronic mail (E-mail)

Messages are sent and received electronically computer networks. Often, a computer fitted with a modem (modulator demodulator) which is used for transmission and reception via telephone lines.

Internet

The Internet (with capital I) is commonly used to refer to a collection of interconnected networks.

World Wide Web (WWW)

The network of hypertext servers which allow text, graphics, and sound files to be mixed together and accessed through hyperlinks

Read Only Memory (ROM)

Computer storage medium that allows the user to recall and use information (read) but do not record or amend it (write).

Login or logon

A procedure used to enter a computer system. Usually an identification and password are required. In turn, logoff/logout/exit notifies that the user is exiting the system.

Local Area Networked (LAN)

A computer network limited to a building or area of a building

2.5.2. Key concepts in SLA

Second language is defined by UNESCO as a language acquired by a person in addition to his/her mother tongue (Cook 1996: 7). A second language may be a foreign or a host language.

Second language learning (SLL) is used in this study to refer to the learning of any language other than the mother tongue in whatever situation or for whatever purpose (Cook 1996: 7).

Second language acquisition refers to the process of learning another language. Krashen (1981) makes a distinction between language “acquisition” and language “learning”. This leads to a similar distinction between first language (L1) and second language (L2). Learning a first language (L1), is for example, in Halliday’s (1975) phrase, “learning how to mean”; language is used for relating to other people and for communicating ideas. People learning a second language (L2) already know how to mean. Second language (L2) learning is inevitably different in this respect from first language (L1) learning. Other equivalent terms for “language learning” are “formal knowledge of a language” and “explicit knowledge”. People learn by consciously reading about or listening to explanations of rules deductively, figuring out rules inductively, and by having their errors corrected (Krashen 1981: 99).

Foreign language in this study is used to refer to a “language not used by residents of the country or community in which that language is being learned” (Dulay 1982: 278). For example, in this study, Swahili instruction is foreign language learning in South Africa.

Interlanguage is used to refer to the speech or writing learners produce in learning a second language (Dulay 1982: 278). The term “interlanguage” was coined by Selinker (1972); it was adapted from “interlingual”, a term first used by Weinreich (1953). Interlanguage refers to a second language learner’s system which has an intermediate

structure between the mother tongue and the language being learned. The interlanguage hypothesis developed a whole new area of second language research and teaching. It argues that second language learners form their own linguistic system. This is neither the system of the learners' native language nor the system of the language being learned but rather falls between the two. Learners' interlanguages constitute their learning processes which involve the making of mistakes, misjudgements, miscalculations, and erroneous assumptions, and form important aspects of learning virtually any skill or acquiring information. Learners' errors are significant as they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired and the strategies or procedures the learners are using in their discovery of the language being learned. In this sense, an error committed is, most likely not a mistake, if it reveals a portion of the learner's competence in the target language (Corder 1974: 25). The development of interlanguage suggests that the learners are unable to correct their linguistic productions. Although these rules may not be "correct" in terms of the target language standards, they are however legitimated in the mind of the learner. This stage is characterised by some slips, in which the learner seems to have grasped a rule or principle in the development of their interlanguage systems (Corder 1974: 26).

The **affective filter** is a component of the internal processing system that subconsciously screens incoming language based on learners' motives, needs, attitudes, or emotional states. The affective filter comprises three main components: the "filter", the "organisier" and the "monitor". The "filter" appears to be the first most important obstacle that incoming language data must overcome. It scrutinises all incoming language based on factors such as the learners' motives, needs, attitudes and emotional states. Also, three related types of motivation have been observed to influence second language learning. These include: the integrative motivation which refers to the desire for a learner to participate in the life of the community that speaks the language; instrumental motivations, defined as the desire for a learner to use the language for practical reasons such as getting a job; and the social group identification motive, which is the desire for a learner to acquire proficiency in a language spoken by a social group with which the learner identifies. The learner's emotional state is also a component of the "filter". Thus

the less anxious and more relaxed the learner is, the better language acquisition proceeds. The “filter” determines the target language models the learner selects as parts of the new language s/he first attends and when his/her language learning efforts cease; and the learner’s speed of language acquisition processes. (Dulay 1982: 71). The “organisier” is also defined as a component of learners’ internal processing systems. It is responsible for learners’ “gradual and subconscious organisation of the new language system the filter lets in”. The functioning of the organisier is reflected in aspects of learners’ verbal performance which include learners’ syntactic constructions systematically used before they acquire a structure of the target language, and learners’ errors they regularly make in their acquisition processes of the structures of the target language. While the impact of the organisier on learner’s learning behaviour is clear, second language researchers have not yet characterised the “organisier” in terms of the amount of learners’ knowledge of discrete linguistic structures successfully acquired. An alternative approach using the degree of learning difficulties a learner experiences in acquiring a structure, is promising, but is still being developed (Dulay 1982: 72). The “monitor” is also a component of learners’ internal processing system. It is responsible for the “conscious processing of learners’ new linguistic productions”. Learners use their linguistic knowledge gained through monitoring to consciously formulate sentences, correct or edit their speech and writing processes. The monitoring is done depending on several factors including: the learners’ level of cognitive development (e.g. when learners are able to manipulate abstract relationships between ideas); the learners’ linguistic forms produced and their individual personality. Learners, who are insecure, self-conscious, and afraid to make errors tend to use the “monitor” more than others. It appears that the use of the “monitor” is limited to low-level rules of the language, those that are easy to conceptualise. However learners’ conscious knowledge of a rule does not guarantee that they can use it to correct their grammatical, lexical and phonological errors (Dulay 1982: 72).

Learning behaviour in this study refers to students’ learning styles in terms of input knowledge. It also refers to learners’ productions of written and spoken structures in terms of output knowledge.

Summary of the chapter

This Chapter has discussed theory and reviewed the literature in both CALL and SLA. The literature view encompassing both fields establishes the link between them: the ultimate goal of a CALL programme is to assist the learner in the acquisition of a second language. CALL is therefore not separable from SLA, and earlier studies have tended to ignore this, having focused too much on the computer and not enough on the learner.

Particular attention is paid to this analytical framework in the interpretation of the findings from the data (see Chapter Five). The next chapter deals with the research design and methodology

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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides a brief explanation of how and why I went about gathering the data in this dissertation. It is particularly relevant to the next two chapters (chapters 4 and 5).

This chapter includes different sections as follows: (1) doing research in language teaching/learning; (2) defining the case study and the reasons for choosing it; (3) aims and methodology of the study; (4) course evaluation; (5) sampling; (6) setting; (7) questionnaires and interviews; (8) difficulties and limitations of the study.

3.1. Doing research in language teaching/learning

Any activity classified as research is a systematic process of inquiry which consists of three elements or components: (1) a question, problem, or hypothesis; (2) data; (3) analysis and interpretation of data. Research traditions in applied linguistics include the psychometric investigations (e.g. seek to determine language gains from different methods and materials through experimental studies); interaction analysis (e.g. investigates the extent to which learner behaviour is determined by the teacher-learner interaction, and utilises various observation system and schedules for coding classroom interactions); discourse analysis (e.g. the study of classroom transcripts and utterances assigned to predetermined categories); ethnography (seeks to obtain insights into the classroom as a cultural system through naturalistic observations and descriptions). Both discourse and interaction analyses are credible methods of data analysis (Nunan 1995: 3).

3.2. Defining the case study and the reasons for choosing it

The term “case study” is defined in various ways: it is reasonably clear that the study of a language learner is a case, and the same can be said for example, for the study of a language classroom. In applied linguistics, the case study usually involves the investigation of the language behaviour of an individual learner or limited number of learners over a certain period of time (Nunan 1995: 229). The case study is more limited in its scope and research focus than ethnography. The interpretation of the data takes the

form of a deep explanation taking into account both the behaviour of the individuals or groups under investigation, and the context in which the behaviour occurs, which has a major influence on the behaviour.

The insights and outcomes generated by the research cannot be generalised to situations beyond those in which the data was collected and generalised. This case study is a qualitative one and can be defined as an intensive, holistic description of the characteristics of each individual learner under investigation. Such deep descriptions in many case studies share certain characteristics with ethnography (e.g. participant observation, interviews, diaries, and journals for documenting sociocultural aspects of behaviour). Both the qualitative case study and ethnography attempt to portray an ongoing event in a particular context. Nunan (1995: 78) suggests six major advantages for adopting the case study as a method of research:

- The case study is “strong in reality” compared to other research methods. Therefore, it is likely to appeal to practitioners exploring issues and concerns raised.
- The case study can be generalised by looking at issues of reliability and validity from the instance under investigation.
- The case study can represent a variety of views about an instance, and can suggest alternative interpretations of this instance.
- The case study can also provide a database of materials for further interpretations by other researchers.
- Findings from the case study can serve various purposes such as staff training, material developments and educational policy-making.
- Findings from the case study are more accessible than conventional research reports. Therefore, it serves many audiences and reduces the dependence of the

reader to free interpretations of implicit statements, which necessarily sustain any type of research.

The documentation and analysis of an instance are seen as major barriers to doing case studies. These concern the extent to which a particular finding can be generalised beyond the case under investigation. The issue of making generalisations from instances is complex, and there is a basis of much scientific work devoted to the subject. The drive for much scientific work is towards a predictive generalisation through a process of theory construction and testing, or usually through some form of observation.

The behaviour of the subjects under investigation is measured at many points over a period of time. This behaviour observation is carried out in order to study the instances of the behaviour, for example, of a disruptive child, which can be evaluated and modified for future behaviour (Nunan 1995: 82).

3.3. Aims and methodology of the study

The purpose of this case study is to explore aspects of the learning process that take place in the CALL classroom, and also to study how students make adjustments in language learning with the aid of the multimedia Swahili programme.

This research is based on the analysis of students' tests (oral/ written) and examination scores in the Swahili Intensive Programme at the University of Cape Town (UCT). In addition, these scores will be discussed in the light of data gained from questionnaires and interviews which were conducted during classroom sessions in the multimedia language laboratory (see Chapter Four). This choice of methodology recognises that the Swahili materials served various functions in language learning classrooms, and could not be evaluated in terms of a unique methodological principle. Moreover, many of the observations are anecdotal in nature, and are therefore not formally quantifiable.

The aim of the dissertation was to apply the principles of instructed second language acquisition (SLA) to the use of computer assisted language learning materials. This is taken up in Chapters 4 and 5.

The dissertation is aimed at the following goals: (1) compare communicative language teaching and learning activities as they took place in the traditional language classroom and the language laboratory, and (2) to document the case studies of four students, in order to identify key variables which affected their learning experience and consequently the success of the multimedia intervention.

The dissertation attempted to connect two discrete disciplines: the field of second language acquisition (SLA) research and theories and the area of computer-assisted language learning (CALL). This aimed at discussing some communicative aspect in language teaching/learning which are relevant to case of the Swahili materials. For this purpose, the study tried to address the instructional design of the course as a whole, rather than merely the Swahili materials. This aimed to understand pedagogical and learning possibilities embedded in the design of the Swahili multimedia materials. The study discusses how and why the multimedia Swahili programme is used and how it resulted in the learning outcomes and theory discussed in this chapter. The analytical framework is presented as follows:

- Determine communicative language teaching/ learning activities between the traditional language classroom and the multimedia language laboratory. This section focused on the functions of the multimedia language programme in language teaching/learning.
- Discuss language teaching/ learning approaches and their implications in the implementation of the multimedia Swahili programme. This section was based on the “how” part of implementing the multimedia programme. In other words, this section explored how learners used the programme.
- Discuss learners’ learning variables, and their significance in the success or failure of the implementation of the multimedia programme. Bearing in mind that these variables are usually identified in traditional language classrooms, some could not be identified with CALL. Hence some were not compatible with the CALL programme.

3.3.1 Course evaluation

The content of each test and examination are summarised and presented as follows:

Test 1: administered on March 8th, 2001

Content covered:

Learners were required to (1) answer questions in Swahili using the relevant suffix; (2) fill in the appropriate missing parts in provided Swahili sentences; (3) translate provided English sentences into Swahili; (4) translate provided Swahili sentences into English; (5) fill in the correct first position demonstratives for the nouns in provided Swahili sentences; (6) turn provided Swahili sentences into the plural; (7) fill in blank spaces (translated in English) in provided Swahili sentences.

Test 2: administered on March 22nd, 2001

Content covered:

Learners (1) answered provided Swahili sentences by filling in the correct adjectives; (2) turned provided Swahili sentences into the plural; (3) turned provided Swahili sentences into the past tense; (4) filled in the blanks with the correct prefixes in provided sentences in Swahili; (5) turned provided Swahili sentences into the present tense; (6) translated English sentences into Swahili and Swahili sentences into English.

Test 3: administered on April 5th 2001

Content covered:

Learners (1) filled in the correct first position demonstratives for the nouns in a number of sentences; (2) turned words into plural; (3) inserted the correct agreements in sentences provided; (4) translated Swahili sentences into English; (5) translated provided sentences into Swahili; (6) matched Swahili phrases with the English ones; (7) answered in Swahili provided questions in Swahili.

Test 4: administered on April 19th 2001

Content covered:

Learners were asked to (1) turn full sentences in Swahili into the negative; (2) use nouns as locatives or locative forms in order to correctly complete provided sentences in Swahili; (3) answer in Swahili questions using the times provided in English; (4) complete tables in Swahili by filling in the missing prefixes and tense markers; (5) complete Swahili sentences with the Swahili missing word; (6) translate English sentences into Swahili.

Final examinations included an oral test which was administered before a written test.

Oral Examination: administered on May 3rd 2001

This was set as part of the examination under the heading SECTION C:

COMPREHENSION.

Content covered:

(1) Learners read Swahili passages and answered related questions in Swahili; (2) summarised paragraphs in Swahili.

Written Examination/ Test 5: administered on May 3rd 2001

The written examination has a summary of different tests, consisting of five sections and including: section A: grammar; section B: gap-filling exercises; section C: comprehension; section D: translation; section E: essay. In general, tests included grammar constructions, vocabulary, question constructions, comprehension and translation (English-Swahili/ Swahili-English). Sections were designed to match the progress of courses from easy structures to difficult ones. The examination covered different sections in previous tests with an additional section of a short essay. Section C (comprehension) of the examination served to evaluate the oral performance of learners.

3.3.2. Sampling

A group of UCT learners (mixed L1's), comprising 10 students in total, studied a (CD-ROM) multimedia Swahili language programme as part of their first year course in

Swahili in the Department of Linguistics and Southern African Languages. These students were involved in the Swahili Intensive Programme during the first semester of the 2001 academic year. For the purpose of this study I have followed all the prescribed steps regarding the sample under investigation. Only four students were selected as a representative sample from a group of 10 students enrolled in the Swahili programme. Firstly, these four subjects in my sample did attend the classes regularly; secondly, they did attend all written and oral tests and final examinations; thirdly, they did attend individual interviews; and finally, they did return the questionnaire forms to me after they filled them in.

3.3.3. Setting

The Swahili course convenor instructed and guided the Swahili course in a classroom equipped with desks, chairs, and a blackboard during an hour-long period from Monday to Wednesday during the first semester. The multimedia practice section of the Swahili course took place in the multimedia language laboratory. Each unit in the multimedia Swahili programme coincided with one week's work. Each week's work was expected to cover the following aspects: lectures, tutorials, and practical multimedia. For the latter, the instructor and learners met for an hour every Friday afternoon.

Students learning a language as part of their academic curricula have to register with the supervisor before they can access computers there. All 20 desktop Pentium computers in the laboratory are networked and they are set in groups of four. Students can practice Swahili between peers, or individually using supported headsets. Teaching-learning materials such as audiotapes, or interactive CDs can be played in the multimedia language laboratory. Students can call for help from the supervisor of the laboratory or the Swahili multimedia assistant during course sessions if necessary. Students can choose any lesson from the multimedia Swahili programme and learn it at their own pace. Computers are set to monitor each student's learning performance in their use of different tests in the programme.

3.3.4. Questionnaires and interviews

In addition, data was collected by means of questionnaires (see Appendix, pp 78-80) and individual interviews aimed at cross-checking students' responses. All four students were briefed about the nature of the interview. Interviews were conducted individually in English and contents were recorded. Some of the questionnaires were done orally: I asked the questions, and noted the responses. This method yielded far more information than the "drop-and-collect" method, as respondents were more willing to offer verbal than written information. These interviews lasted about ten minutes each.

3.4. Difficulties and limitations of the study

This section draws on major difficulties I encountered in gathering data for the purpose of this study. The difficulties related to the samples under investigation and the gathering of relevant literature resources, and the collection of computer monitored data about the students. This was a case study within a very restricted and small sample base. I had no other alternative due to the deadline for the submission of this study.

I also encountered difficulties regarding the gathering of relevant literature sources. Although there are many sources about the description and evaluation of European languages such as English and French in the field of Language Learning and Technology (LLT) in general, and particularly in computer assisted language learning (CALL) environments, it was difficult to find any detailed literature with reference to African languages. I contacted the Multimedia Education Group (MEG) at UCT; but their focus is more on Education and Technology rather than learning a language. I also contacted individuals who share, to some extent, interests in my field of investigation.

Other difficulties related to the collection of computer-recorded data about the students' use of the programme. For example, those students registered in another faculty, such as Engineering, while taking another course (e.g. African languages) in the Humanities, could not access computers in the language laboratory because they did not have the "right" in terms of the electronic security system policy of the university.

Other sources consulted were mostly written. I gathered references, asking everyone I spoke to what reading materials would be valuable. When I needed to get an understanding of something, I tried to contact the relevant person. I must thank the staff of the then Department of Linguistics and Southern African Languages³ for their willingness to help. Throughout this research, I have tried to maintain a critical eye by looking at more than one point of view. I have presented the information I gathered as impartially as possible.

This chapter has dealt with the research design and methodology. I have discussed the aims and the methodology of the study. I have briefly explained how and why I went about gathering the information in this dissertation. This explanation is particularly relevant in order to understand how data will be analysed and interpreted in the next chapters (see Chapters Four and Five).

³ Now Departments of English and of Southern African languages

CHAPTER FOUR DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter is organised into six sections: (1) analysing students' test and examination results; (2) significance of students' scores; (3) some features in students' writing and speaking performances; (4) students' learning behaviour; (5) students' learning and performance outcomes and variables.

4.1. Analysing students' tests and examination results

The Swahili Intensive Programme began on February 19th 2001. Each test was set up at two weekly intervals following coverage of a particular course content. Before the end of the semester oral and written examinations were set up to evaluate students' learning performance. Regarding students' tests and examinations scores (oral and written), the means and ranges for each test were calculated and are presented in Table 1.

	Written				Examination		Students' Averages
	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 4	Test 5	Oral	
Dates	8/3/01	22/3/01	5/4/01	19/4/01	3/5/01	3/5/01	
*Student 1	54	71	45	21	48	36	45.83
*Student 2	64	61	58	60	76	63	63.66
*Student 3	56	60	77	24	45	74	56.00
*Student 4	92	83	84	94	90	76	86.50
Mean	66.5	68.75	66	49.75	64.75	62.25	62.99
Range	38	32	39	73	54	40	40.67

* = students' scores in %

Table 1. Tests scores (written and oral), means and ranges

Table 1 illustrates individual scores (written and oral) of the students in each of the tests and examinations together with their corresponding ranges. Although all tests covered the same content (see Chapter 3), their components vary in terms of difficulties from Test 1 to Test 4.

Test 2 had a very low range (23%) compared to Test 4 (74%). Test 2 had also the lowest range compared to the ranges of the other tests. The students seemed closer to each other in terms of the gaps between their written scores in this test. Students were required to memorise basic target language patterns which included: (1) isolated vocabulary items (e.g. words referring to kinships relations); (2) grammatical elements (e.g. use of adjectives and possessives); (3) simple structures (noun subject + verb + noun complement).

The very high range of scores in Test 4 (74 %) enabled a distinction to be made between those students who were able to work out new patterns specific to Swahili and those who could not cope with these new linguistic patterns particular to the language being learned. Although students tended to memorise patterns in the target language, the introduction of new linguistic elements specific to Swahili created some difficulties.

There is a close similarity between ranges in Test 1, Test 3 and Test 5. These different tests covered familiar linguistic elements in the target language. Some students did not always succeed in producing those basic language elements that they encountered during class period. Likewise in Test 6 (oral examination), the students were required to reproduce the language elements they used during classroom sessions.

4.2. Significance of students' scores

In this section, I discuss the significance of students' scores in terms of their learning processes. I consider the extent to which students have learnt Swahili. I will graphically examine the students' writing and speaking scores in relation to the mean as presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1 Oral/ written scores and related means and ranges

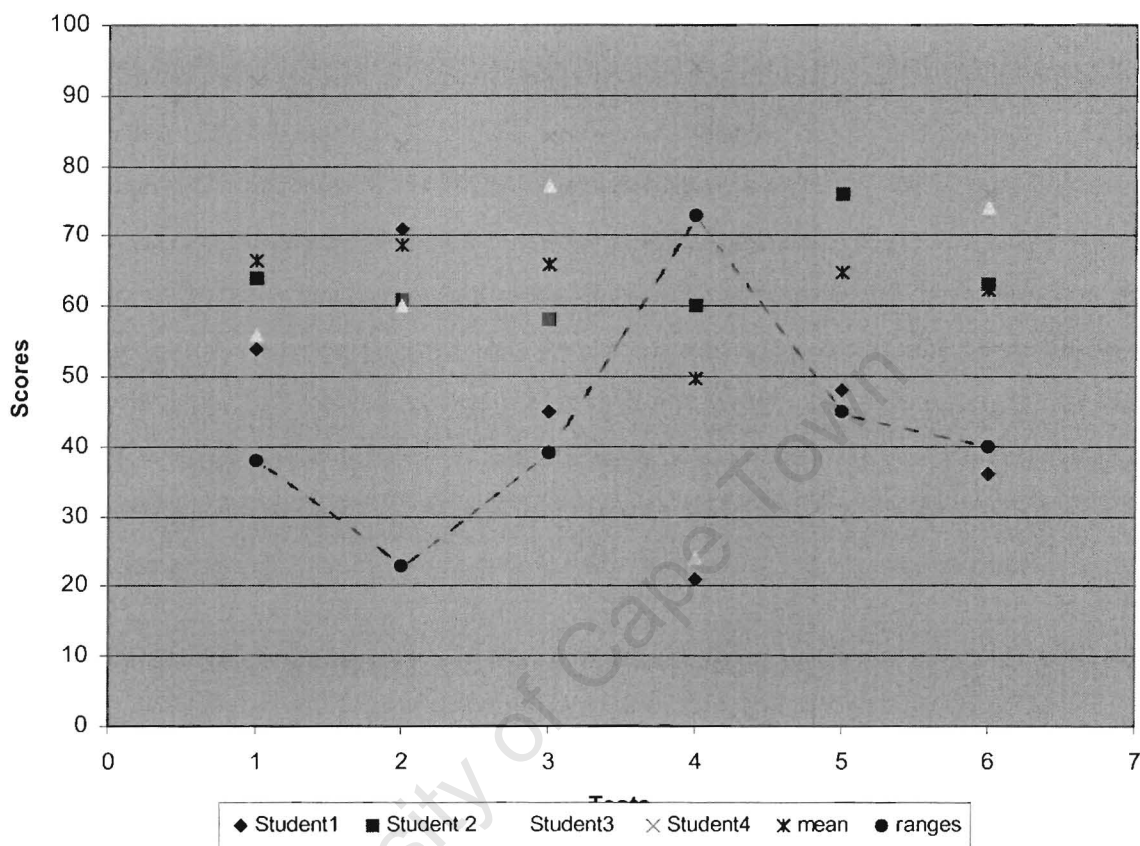


Figure 1 illustrates learners' writing and speaking performances with their related means and ranges. It characterises the different students in the classroom: student 4 is very good; student 2 is good; student 3 is good but not stable (her scores go up and down); and student 1 is weak. Student 4 has the highest scores above the mean, which would place him in the top 80%. In general it is most likely that students 1, 2, and 3 are representative of the group of Swahili learners as a whole for the simple reason that the further a score is from the overall group of learners' mean, the less it is likely to occur. Although each test was designed with varying difficulties for the learners, one can say that each individual student seems to be making progress (except students 1 and 3 in Test 4).

In general, written tests have almost the same contents; but they differ in terms of difficulties from Test 1 to Test 5, and relate to the progression of the course itself. Tests are set from simple content (e.g. Tests 1, 2 and 3), to the most complex content (e.g. Test 4), Test 5 being a summary of previous tests. Given differences in test contents (mentioned above), it is possible to say that students have made progress in their learning process. The range in Test 5 (45%) is above the average of all ranges (40,67%). Likewise the means (64,75%) is above the average of all means (62,99%). The improvement of students' writing skills in Test 5 (written) correlates with the improvement of their speaking skills in Test 6 (oral). Given differences in test contents, it is obvious that each individual student has improved his/her writing and speaking skills to some extent, which enabled him/her to make progress in terms of language learning development. Test 5 was administered after the course; the convenor met with learners individually in order to discuss their difficulties in learning Swahili. Test 5 was set based on information about students' needs.

4.3. Some features of students' writing and speaking performances

Some features in both students' writing and speech relate to students' words used in their writing and in their pronunciation. The symbol (*) indicates learners' misuse of linguistic forms in either English or Swahili:

- **Lack of vocabulary knowledge**

Students use blank spaces or incomplete sentence structures

Example in Test 1, section 4 by Student 3:

"Tuna wapenzi" was translated "We have..." which is incomplete as the complete translation is "we have lovers".

- **Mistranslation of Swahili words into English**

Example in Test 3, section 3.2 by Student 2:

*Huyu *baba ni mwalimu* was translated "this *man is a teacher" instead of "old man" (*baba*).

Example in Test 3, section (d), by Student 3:

Wale wazee ni waganga was translated “those old men are *rich; instead of “witchdoctor”(waganga).

- **Use of incorrect number agreement form in English into Swahili translation**

Example in Test 3, section (d) by all four students:

“How is grand pa?” translates *Babu hajambo* which means “How *are granpa”.

Example in Test 2, section 1(e), by Student 3:

“These boys are ten years old” translates *Huyu mvulana ana umri kuni* which means “These boys *is ten years old”.

- **Translation from Swahili into English**

Examples in Test 2, section 7(b), by students 1 and 3:

Juma yupo pale chini ya pili is translated “Juma is somewhere *around”. The English word “around” is the incorrect translation of the Swahili word *chini*. The correct translation is “Juma is there now”.

Example in Test 1, section 4, student 1:

Hawa vijana wana wachumba is translated “*These *vijana* (boys) have ‘*wachumba*’ (wives). The correct translation is “Those boys have wives”.

- **Incorrect semantic translation of Swahili forms into English**

Example in Test 1, section 4, by students 1, 2 and 3:

Tuna wapenzi is translated “We have *boyfriends” or “We have *girlfriends”. The correct translation is “We have lovers”.

- **Incorrect use of the past tense**

Examples in Test 2 section 3, by all four students:

Huyo mzee ni mwalimu wetu (“That old man is our teacher”) into the past tense is *Huyo mzee alikuwa mwalima wetu* (That old man was our teacher).

*Huyo mzee *alimuwalimu wetu* is a meaningless translation by Student 1.

*Huyo mzee *halibaba wetu* is a meaningless translation by student 2.

*Huyo mzee *simwalimu wetu* “That old man is not our teacher” by student 3.

• Confusion in using “unknown” Swahili grammatical forms

Example in Test 1, section 4, by student 1:

“Surely, you have wives?” was translated by Student 1 as *Jamani, mna *majirhani?*

Majirhani is not a Swahili word. The correct translation is *Jamani, mna wachumba* where *wachumba* means “wives”

4.4. Students’ learning behaviour

In this section, I provide an explanation of learners’ tests and examination results based on data gained from questionnaires and interviews.

Test 1

This test required the students to produce grammatical and lexical patterns they discussed during class sessions.

Student 1 put much effort into reading course materials. She was not familiar with Swahili grammar rules and structures, which are very different from those of the German language. She had a good performance in question sections including: grammar, vocabulary; filling in the appropriate missing parts in sentences.

Student 2 prepared well in reading course notes and doing her homework.

Student 3 only started to read course notes a few hours before the test. She pointed out that she was wondering about what to do because they “have not done much in the course so far”.

Student 4 also did his homework and read course notes, but mostly he made use of his background knowledge of Swahili.

Test 2

This test required the students to have an ability to combine basic elements in simple sentence constructions and translation. Students 1 and 3 had a good performance.

Student 1 focused on the grammar and vocabulary components in catching up with sections she failed to respond well to in the previous test.

Student 2 performed well; she focused on the grammar section in Lesson 2. She learned about the personal pronouns and how they are used in simple positive and negative sentences and other noun classes. Also she did some related gap-filling exercises.

Student 3 focused on reading her course notes and doing related exercises.

Students 4 read his course notes about the types of plural forms and did some gap-filling exercises in the reading materials given to them by the course convenor.

Test 3

This test combined contents in Test 1 and Test 2.

Student 1: had a very low score because she did not prepare for the test. She came a few hours before the test for some revision in using the programme. She worked on gap-filling exercises and the use of negative forms in Swahili sentences.

Student 2: read her course notes on some Swahili grammatical points (e.g. use of plural forms) and she also did some translation exercises from Swahili into English.

Student 3: had a very good score. She prepared well for this test. She read her course notes on sentence constructions in Swahili using nouns, plural forms and translations into both Swahili and English.

Student 4: did some gap-filling exercises and sentence constructions in Swahili using the correct agreements (e.g. demonstrative forms for types of noun and locative classes). He did some translations from English into Swahili.

Test 4

This test was the most difficult in terms of its content and yet the students maintained their learning progress in relation to the course progress. Both **Student 2** and **Student 4**

participated the most in class, and were very enthusiastic. Both students obtained good scores. **Student 1** and **Student 3** had very low scores.

Student 1 focused much on the grammar section of the programme and read her course notes. She produced lots of confusing structures in trying to apply grammatical rules and complex structures in Swahili.

Student 3 on the other hand, did not make any great efforts. She was busy doing an assignment related to her mainstream courses, which was due the same day as the test. She seemed nervous. I attempted to motivate her but she let me know that the course was getting boring. I tried to understand why she said so but I realised she was not keen to say any more.

Written Examination

This test was set after the Swahili instructor met with students individually in order to discuss their learning progress. He was trying to find ways in which he could help learners, especially those having very low scores. Each learner was scheduled for an hour session to catch up with parts of the course in which they failed to perform well. These individual discussions with the course instructor had good effects on students in providing necessary motivations. **Students 1, 2 and 3** improved their written scores, although **students 1** and **3**'s written scores were still under average.

Student 4 had a very good performance score. **Student 2** and **Student 4** still kept high scores. These students brought with them their previous individual learning and classroom experience, along with the hope to learn the language, and satisfy their own particular needs.

Oral Examination

The Swahili instructor conducted an oral test. The aim of this oral test was to establish learners' comprehension, speaking and listening abilities. Learners were given Swahili passages to read. They then answered related questions in Swahili. Although **Student 1** had an oral performance below the average, the general oral performance average was good. **Student 4** had the highest score, followed by **Student 3**.

Students 2, 3 and 4 are all native speakers of the Bantu language family. All three students had good oral scores.

Student 1 (German) is a speaker of the Indo European family language which has a very different grammatical structure and sound system to Swahili. This affected her participation in class discussion. She was hesitant, misspelled words and looked anxious when the course convenor tried to motivate her in acting out dialogues as part of class communication activities.

Student 2 and 3 are Sotho and Xhosa speaking from South Africa. Their native languages are part of the Bantu family language. Because of this, they are familiar with the Swahili sound system and to some extent, the grammatical rules and structures of the Swahili language.

Student 4 considers himself as a Kenyan-born English L1, although he grew up in an environment where both his mother and father were Swahili speakers. Thus he is familiar with the Swahili sound system and to some extent the grammatical rules and structures of the Swahili language.

4.5. Students' learning and performance outcomes and variables

Literature on second language learning (see sections 2.2.3 Criteria for evaluating language learning in CALL and 2.2.4. Studies of classroom discourse) identifies some variables which are influential in students' learning of a second language. These variables have been identified from students' learning behaviour. These include: (1) previous language experience; (2) interests in the course; (3) styles of learning; (4) learning strategy; (5) attitudes towards the course; (6) responses to the multimedia Swahili programme

4.5.1. Previous language experience

In addition to their mother tongue, students had various experiences of learning other languages:

Student 1 is a 23 year old, European female, German first language speaker, who also speaks English and French.

Student 2 is a 20 year old, an African female, Sotho first language speaker, who also speaks Venda, Xhosa, Zulu, English,

Student 3 is a 21 year old, an African female, Xhosa first language speaker, who also speaks Zulu and English.

Student 4 is a 22 year old, an African male, Kenyan-born, with English as a first language.

4.5.2. Interest in the course

All students who registered for the Swahili Intensive Programme had various reasons for doing so. These reasons included: traveling purposes (e.g. Student 1); academic purposes (e.g. Students 2 and 3); and work purposes (e.g. Student 4).

Some students (e.g. Student 1 and 4) did not intend to get high marks in order to pass the course as an academic subject. But they expected to gain some communicative skills, which represented an important asset for employment opportunities in East Africa where Swahili is widely spoken. Some travelers like to get some language training and cultural insights before they get to their destination. These basic communicative skills are very helpful in meeting new people.

4.5.3. Styles of learning

In general all the students (especially Students 2 and 4) relied primarily on course readings provided by the course convenor; others relied on both course materials and the multimedia Swahili programme (e.g. Students 1 and 3). Some students had opportunities to interact with native speakers outside the classroom (e.g. Student 4). According to the course convenor the East African students' association at UCT has about 500 members. Even though the membership is small compared to the UCT population of about 19,000 students, it still provides the opportunity to interact with Swahili native speakers for those

learners who are keen to do so. Students used the multimedia Swahili programme for improving their specific needs of learning ability. Student 1 made intensive use of multimedia for pronunciation, grammar exercises and dictation. Student 2 used multimedia for pronunciation and grammar exercises. She was keen to meet native speakers on campus so that she could have the opportunity to practice. Student 3 used multimedia for pronunciation and grammar exercises. Student 4 used the multimedia for grammar exercises and dictation.

4.5.4 Learning strategy

Students planned their learning activities outside the classroom according to their individual purposes. They sought out opportunities which could help them compensate for the academic emphasis in the classroom. They combined both communicative and academic knowledge for their individual purposes. Some listened to the radio to develop listening skills (e.g. Students 3); others built up their vocabulary in learning a list of words consciously (e.g. Student 1); some students monitored their own speech in using the dictation (e.g. Students 1 and 3); others evaluated their writing in doing their homework given to them by the course convenor (e.g. Student 2 and 4). The course convenor always discussed in advance the content of the test with the students. This was intended to avoid putting pressure on students in their effort to cope with their assignments in other courses. Thus students could prepare for the tests less stressfully.

4.5.5. Attitudes towards the course

Two different attitudes towards the course emerged. In the short term, students had positive attitudes towards the course. They were enthusiastic and motivated half way into the course schedule. Students did not see the programme as an extra course as long as it did not interfere with their working on assignments in other subjects. In the long term, the course became monotonous because students assumed they had already gone through the course content. A negative aspect of the course was that because it was taught in an academic manner, only academic language skills were developed. But it is not clear whether it would develop communication skills in the long term.

4.5.6. Responses to the multimedia Swahili programme

Although the multimedia Swahili programme was still under construction, students had positive responses to it. The multimedia Swahili programme was interactive and smooth running through its different features (e.g. pronunciation, grammar; culture). Dr Tessa Dowling, a former UCT Xhosa Lecturer, developed a multimedia Xhosa programme called *Speak Xhosa With Us* now available to the public. Both multimedia language programmes are interactive and present similar technological features. However, the uniqueness of the multimedia Swahili programme is its specific design that enables the computer to record and monitor the learners' achievement in contrast to the many other language programmes available on the market such as *Rosetta*⁴ and *Easy Language*⁵.

This chapter has discussed quantitative and qualitative data elicited from students' tests, examination results and additional data collected by using questionnaires and interviews. The qualitative data was regarded as a sustaining explanation of learners' scores in relation to their learning processes. Particular attention was paid on the analysis of students' learning performance outcomes and variables. These included: (1) previous language experience; (2) interests in the course; (3) styles of learning; (4) learning strategy; (5) attitudes towards the course; (6) responses to the multimedia Swahili programme.

These results from the case study are based on a small sample of four students. Although the sample is small, certain observations, trends, tendencies and patterns were observed that I would like to note about the multimedia Swahili programme. I also recognise the fact that findings from this small-scale study cannot be generalised to other students using the multimedia Swahili programme. I fully acknowledge that a study involving a large sample would be necessary to validate the assertions I make. Major variables will be discussed in terms of their interaction in the failure or success on the implementation of the Swahili multimedia programme. The next chapter (see Chapter Five) will deal with the interpretation of the findings from the data I have analysed.

⁴ Rosetta is a commercial language programme including 12 languages

⁵ Easy Language is a commercial language programme including 25 world languages

CHAPTER FIVE INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter interprets the findings from the analysis of data used in this study. It is organised into three sections: (1) communicative language teaching/learning activities between the traditional language classroom and the multimedia language laboratory; (2) language teaching/learning approaches and their implications in the implementation of the multimedia Swahili programme; (3) learners' learning variables and their significance in the success or failure of the implementation of the multimedia programme. The purpose of these learning outcomes is to show how and why CALL is used and how it is related to the theory discussion (see Chapter Two).

5.1. Communicative language teaching/learning activities between the traditional language classroom and the multimedia language laboratory

The interpretation of this section is based on the functions of the multimedia language programme in language teaching/learning.

The Swahili Intensive Programme took place in two different classroom environments including the traditional classroom and the multimedia language laboratory. In the traditional classroom, the course focused on an introduction to the language and culture of the Swahili people in relation to their use of the language. Emphasis was put on aspects such as speaking, reading, and writing with limited teaching of formal grammar. Lectures generally included pronunciation, vocabulary, contextual practice and cultural observations. It was expected that by the end of that course students would be able to conduct a basic conversation in Swahili and that they would be able to cope in a Swahili speaking environment⁶. The full Swahili course ran parallel to the multimedia programme. Each unit in the multimedia programme coincided with one week's work.

⁶ Cf. 2001 Swahili course handout

Each week covered the following aspects: lectures, tutorials, a practical and multimedia. Tests were written fortnightly.

The relationship between the teacher and the learners in the classroom was asymmetrical in terms of the organisation of classroom discourse. This suggests two simultaneous functions of classroom discourse: it conveys the overt message and at the same time sets up or confirms the most obvious social way in which teachers control classroom discourse by talking more than anyone else. Interaction between learners occurs in small groups or in one-to-one communicative activities. The teacher who is the course convenor has the right to assign speaking rights to individual learners by calling their names. The teacher provides the topic of a specific situation for students to make use of language as much as they can. Since the traditional language classroom is far from similar to real life situations, the teacher encourages students to use their imagination based on course reading materials.

However, in terms of the UCT multimedia programme/context, communicative activities are presented in a different way in the multimedia language laboratory. Student-teacher interactions appear to be altered to some extent by the arrangement of the multimedia language laboratory. Physically, the multimedia language laboratory is bigger than the traditional language classroom. This results in the increase of the psychological distance between the teacher and learners. The language laboratory is likely to turn the two-way communication between the teacher and the students in the traditional language classroom towards the one-way communication from the teacher to the students. The teacher only walked to the students when they needed help. The confidentiality of interactions between the students and the teacher in the traditional language classroom disappears compared to the multimedia language laboratory where the teacher stood behind the control console from which he talked through a microphone. The student-computer interaction is relatively new to students; for most of them, it was the first time they were communicating with a computer using an interactive language programme.

The concept of communication between the learners and the computer consisted of the fact that the computer language programme would respond to students' actions taken

whilst using the multimedia language software. In fact students did not communicate with the computer using words. Indeed, students needed to learn another system of communication which was specific to the use of computers. The computers communicated by means of graphics presentation, sound effects, and animated characters. Students learned how to interact with the computers so that they could follow the instructions of the computer programme.

In the UCT multimedia language programme context the flow of interaction between the teacher and the students actually changed. The computer took on to some extent the role of the teacher. The computer software used in the multimedia language laboratory is a learning-oriented computer programme. The teacher had to take into account the fact that the students no longer depended on him as the only source of knowledge. The Swahili multimedia programme taught the students the knowledge that the teacher normally taught.

As a result, the role of the teacher changed from using the communicative language teaching/learning approach in the traditional language classroom to a coordinator of classroom activities during the multimedia class sessions. The teacher coordinated the flow of interactions between the teacher and the students as well as between the students and the computers. Although all the students could not necessarily speak Swahili, they felt the need to try to communicate in it. Also, the students could use the multimedia Swahili language programme at their own learning pace.

5.2. Language teaching/learning approaches and their implications in the implementation of the multimedia Swahili programme

The interpretation of this section is based on the “how” part of the implementation of the language programme, in other terms how learners used the programme in their learning processes.

The choice of a relevant language learning programme that fits into the setting of the multimedia language laboratory is one of the major keys to success. As argued above, the setting of the multimedia language laboratory is different from the traditional language

classroom. Computer language software is not used at all in the traditional language classroom where textbooks and audio-tapes are then the most important teaching sources. These are still very helpful teaching tools in the multimedia language laboratory, although, the medium of teaching is through the use of computers. Another aspect that one should take into consideration is the fact that the teaching tool is also different in the multimedia language laboratory where chalk and the blackboard are no longer relevant. Therefore, the use of the language programme in the multimedia language laboratory should focus on its interactive potential which is relevant for such a language learning environment.

It is important to provide insights into the problems resulting from aspects of the multimedia Swahili programme itself. Although the students learned how to manipulate the multimedia Swahili programme, possible frustrations could result from using the programme, since it was still undergoing development. Therefore the students could have difficulties in manipulating it. These difficulties usually undermined the students' interests in the multimedia class sessions. The students were keen to experiment with learning on the computer. Technical problems in the management of the multimedia language laboratory were a major challenge. For example, the Swahili course convenor was familiar with the computer language programme, but there was a multimedia assistant to help with technical problems and temporary supervised the communicative activities in the multimedia language laboratory.

The multimedia materials were used as a complement to the full Swahili course. This language programme was designed to teach the Swahili language to the beginner. It is important to stress that the multimedia Swahili programme cannot cover the whole Swahili teaching course curriculum. In developing the programme, the teacher had a clear understanding of the objectives, and then tailored the course accordingly. However the place of grammar in the language-teaching curriculum remains a subject of much controversy. The debate about the role of grammar in language teaching has shifted its ground somewhat in recent years. There is now a general agreement that learning grammatical paradigms cannot guarantee a facility in communicative skills. In addition to the more traditional exercises there are also the more recent developments in

communicative activities which have shed light on the use of the computer. The design of communicative-based exercise approaches relies on the synthesis of all the discrete skills (e.g. reading, writing, speaking, listening). Although computers have a higher speed in retrieving and processing data, they still cannot compete with human beings in the process of natural language. In other words, communicative exercises involving a synthesis of many different aspects of human languages are still beyond the scope of present computer technology.

A characteristic of natural language is that it is primarily a spoken medium. This is obviously a problem for the computer since its ability to deal with speech is far less developed than its ability to deal with written signals. The type of activities which are clearly not suited to CALL at present are those which require spoken production, where learners match their own responses against ready-made models of the language programme by replaying the recorder as the tape in the traditional language laboratory. In this respect the computer is at present more like cassette-based courses for self-learning. Even so, the student can still practise certain skills, such as dictation, through this facility. But, not all language courses aim to teach spoken skills in this way. Furthermore, many teachers use written activities either as a general approach, or as an end itself. This all depends on the particular group of learners concerned. These kinds of difficulties derive from the complex nature of natural language. The processing of spoken language encounters the same difficulties as the processing of written language. It is important to stress that what the computer is doing is matching, but not understanding. A different problem arises with questions, which have no specific right or wrong answers. In a comprehension exercise, for example, the computer might produce a 'right' response to a message instead of all the many possible answers to this message. Also the language programme cannot supply definitions and translations of language forms used in classroom activities

Many problems relate to limitations at sentence level, such as letters, morphemes, words, and even phrases. Beyond the level of the sentence the difficulties multiply. For example in continuous text certain rules such as, cohesion, choice of sentence focus, pronominal reference, and sequence of tenses, operate across sentence boundaries. Any attempt to

work through sentence by sentence is a highly complex task. In inflexional morphology exercises, for example, the learners were required to provide noun endings, adjectives endings or different parts of the verb, to change the grammatical case or the word order. These exercises were presented in different ways, for instance gap-filling or changing a given form. They were concerned with discrete grammatical items and derivational morphology exercises, such as changing the word class of a given word which fitted into the single answer mould/gap used to present drills of this kind on the computer. Both cloze and gap-filling exercises require learners to fill in the missing part of a word or a sentence, but they are different in terms of their purposes. In the multimedia context, cloze exercises were used and required the learner to assess linguistic possibilities in the context of a text. In gap-filling exercises learners were asked to fill in the missing parts of a word or a sentence, as there is a clear morphological and grammatical goal to be attained. Dictation was used as an activity in the students' repertoire and helped improve spelling and listening difficulties. Computers monitored different types of data about the students' learning processes, the students' presence and progress, and other data to be reported back to the teacher, either on-screen or in hard copy, particularly those of an exercise format giving a score. Difficulties in presenting the programme contents can lead to incomplete comprehension of basic concepts by the students. Their wrong answers which the teacher had specifically anticipated and singled out for comment, remedial material, and possible teaching, were the basis for these problems.

5.3. Learners' learning variables, and their significance in the success or failure of the implementation of the multimedia Swahili programme

When learning a new language, learners appear to pass through at least three kinds of communication phases: one-way, partial two-way, and full two-way. In one-way communication, the learner listens to or reads the target language, but does not communicate back during classroom discussions (e.g. Students 1 and 3). The communication is one-way, towards the learner, not from the learner. Listening to speeches and reading books are two examples of one-way communication in this study. In partial two-way communication, the learner may respond orally to the teacher or

someone else, but the communication is not in the target language during classroom communicative activities (e.g. Student 2). The response may be in the learner's first language (here English as the medium of teaching) or may be non-verbal, such as a nod or other physical response. In full two-way communication the learner speaks the target language, acting as both recipient and sender of verbal messages in the target language (Student 4 has good oral performance of Swahili). In general, learners tend toward these types of communication at different times during their learning process and rely on one-way and partial two-way communication during the early stages of language learning, waiting until much later to participate in full two-way communication (Dulay 1982: 42).

The students' motivation was reflected in their regular attendance at class lessons. When the communicative task-based activities required the student and his/her partner to act, for example a dialogue on the computer, the aim was to initiate the students to negotiation of meaning in Swahili.

Summary of the chapter

Earlier computers were designed to provide programmed instruction (e.g. drill and repeat practices), for its potential as an instructional tool was originally intended to support the students to become speakers of the target language by learning discrete linguistic units. The learners mastered the target language through the use of the mechanical process of repetitive drills. The development of multimedia technology was a major innovation in language teaching/learning and combined various perspectives towards a more interactive use of computers. Likewise, language acquisition theories have changed significantly to support communicative approaches to language instruction. Pedagogical approaches to language teaching/learning have become more interactive and look at the computers as an instructional tool that requires the teachers to create situations in which the students utilise the target language communicatively. Computers have had broader applications in the field of language teaching/learning, despite the following limitations:

- CALL cannot be substituted for the teacher at present, despite advances in computer technology;

- The Swahili programme cannot cover the whole language teaching/learning curriculum at its current stage of development and it is not a self-sufficient methodology of language teaching/learning; it also does not utilise computer mediated communication between learners.
- Many teachers lack programming and pedagogical skills, as well as computing.

This chapter dealt with the interpretation of findings from the analysis of data used in this study. It first dealt with communicative language teaching/learning activities between the traditional language classroom and the multimedia language laboratory. This section focused on the functions of the multimedia language programme in language teaching/learning. The second section discussed language teaching/learning approaches and their implications in the implementation of the multimedia Swahili programme. This section was based on the “how” part of implementing the multimedia programme. In other words, this section explored how learners used the programme. The third section focused on learners’ learning variables, and their significance in the success or failure of the implementation of the multimedia programme. Bearing in mind that these variables are usually identified in traditional language classrooms, some could not be identified with CALL. Hence some were not compatible with the CALL programme. The purpose of this chapter was to show how and why CALL is used, and resulted in learning outcomes and the theory discussion (see Chapter Two). The next chapter will focus on my recommendations and conclusions:

CHAPTER SIX

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

This chapter includes: (1) summary of the study; (2) advantages of the Swahili programme; (3) limitations of the Swahili programme; (4) recommendations; and (5) conclusion.

6.1. Summary of the study

This study has investigated a group of UCT students (mixed L1's), using a (CD-ROM) multimedia Swahili programme in the Department of Southern African Languages. These students were selected according to criteria including (1) regular attendance to the class; (2) attendance to all written and oral tests and final written examinations; and (3) returned questionnaire forms; (4) attendance at individual interviews. For the purpose of this study, data was collected by means of tests (oral/ written) and examination results.

These scores were presented graphically and discussed based on data gained from questionnaires and interviews. A number of learners' variables were used in interpreting the data. These variables included: (1) previous language experience; (2) interests in the course; (3) styles of learning; (4) learning strategy; (5) attitudes towards the course and (6) responses to the multimedia programme. Data was interpreted within the interlanguage framework which shed light on the learning process that took place in the CALL classroom and provided an explanation on how the interaction among these students' learning variables accounted for the success or failure of language teaching in the implementation of the multimedia Swahili programme. The analytical framework used in the interpretation of findings from the data included:

- A comparison of communicative language teaching/learning activities between the traditional language classroom and the multimedia language laboratory. This section focused on the functions of the multimedia language programme in language teaching/learning.

- A discussion of language teaching/learning approaches and their implications in the implementation of the multimedia Swahili programme. In other words, how did learners use the programme in their learning processes?
- A discussion of learners' learning variables, and their significance in the success, or failure of the implementation of the multimedia programme (bearing in mind that these variables are usually identified in traditional language classrooms).

The development of multimedia technology is a major innovation in language teaching/learning and combines various approaches towards a more interactive use of computers. Pedagogical approaches to language teaching/learning have become more interactive and look at broader computer applications in the field of language teaching/learning, despite current limitations to multimedia technology. The CALL programmes are not yet substitutes for the teacher but they can be used as an aid to language teaching/learning.

The results from the case study are based on a small sample of four students. Despite this, certain observations, trends, tendencies and patterns were observed about the students' use of the multimedia programme. Findings from this small-scale study cannot be generalised for other students using the Swahili programme, nevertheless the data and insights gained from this study can be meaningfully and usefully fed into further research in this area. My findings, observations and recommendations can and should be tested in a larger sample group to validate these initial results.

Language learning in the multimedia laboratory is based on four overlapping models including the model of the computer as a tutor, a stimulus, a tool and the integrative model which is a combination of the three former ones. Since the programme is still under construction, the use of the computer was more efficient as a stimulus or a tool but failed to play its role as a tutor. Pedagogical procedures in the traditional classroom are more effective than those in the multimedia language laboratory. Language learning takes place over a long period of time and yet the students were only enrolled in the Swahili course for a semester. However, CALL can provide successful learning to some extent, in

the absence of real-life language learning experience. It is helpful to categorise the advantages of using the multimedia programme in terms of the assets of the programme as a technological tool and its benefits to both the learners and the teachers.

6.2. Advantages of the Swahili programme

The success of the programme depends more on the instructional design than on the media or technologies employed. The multimedia applications cannot replace the teachers since such applications can take significant skills and resources to create. But these can solve specific instructional problems so that the technology complements and supplements the traditional language instruction. Advantages of the multimedia Swahili programme in language learning are as follows:

- It stimulates language discussions and discovery among learners;
- It allows learners to work alone or in groups rearranging words and texts to discover patterns of language and meaning;
- It corresponds to a broader reassessment of communicative approaches in language teaching/learning practices;
- It combines various skills (e.g. listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and technological tools (e.g. video, audio, sound);
- It provides possibilities for learners to read, write, and listen through its component features;
- It encourages the learners to explore and re-create the language for themselves as active participants in their learning processes;
- It provides realistic native-speaker models of the target language;
- It implements a language learning curriculum;
- It provides a basis and matrix for assessing the learners' needs;
- It provides different sections relevant to the learners' needs and skill to be practiced;
- It keeps records of the students' use of the programme and their performance scores for evaluation;

- It can be used as a language reference and resource.

6.2.1. Learners' benefits

- Learners work alone or in groups to discover patterns of the language and meaning; they participate in language discussions which contribute to their language development;
- Students actively interpret and organize information received and revise their prior knowledge in the light of what they have learned;
- The programme is made available to students daily during class open times;
- Learners can practice a variety of skills relevant to the learning of the target language since the package is designed with specific language learners in mind;
- The computer feedback provides learners with directions to improve their practice of exercises at the end of each lesson;
- Learners work at their own pace, proceed when they are ready, control their own learning paths, and review their learning processes as often as they wish;
- Learners actively pursue learning and receive immediate feedback;
- Learners enjoy privacy, since they experience no embarrassment when they make mistakes;
- Learners learn when they feel the need to do so.

6.2.2. Teachers' benefits

- The teacher can use the computer's feedback and reports from the learners' performance to improve the needs of individual students with special learning difficulties;
- The Swahili multimedia can save time through reduced need for teaching, marking, and course preparation. Time-saving can, in turn, save money, increase student contact time, allow a higher instructor-to-student ratio, or give instructors time to stay abreast of changes in their fields;
- The programme is relevant for teaching many routine topics, and liberates the teacher from teaching materials that continually change;
- Learning a new set of skills can become particularly beneficial if the instructor is involved in subsequent projects;

- The new methods add something exciting, innovative, and different to language teaching routines.
- Individual learners' low scores may indicate that the programme content is difficult, or less successfully presented. But variations in learners' performance results may also indicate incomplete comprehension of basic concepts on the parts of the learners.
- Monitoring can also present the teacher with information about the errors students make which the teacher can single out for comment, possible remediation and re-assessment by the students.
- Reports of data collected towards the assessment of the students, and the lessons (evaluation) can help the teacher spot an individual learner's problem, as well as to identify the most frequently occurring error types.

6.3. Limitations of the Swahili programme

- The Swahili programme is still under development. It is not technologically fully interactive; for example, it does not provide any possibility for teachers to incorporate new lessons to its contents.
- Its current stage of development does not cover the whole language teaching/learning curriculum and it is not a self-sufficient methodology of language teaching/learning.
- The Swahili materials lack of networked communication
- The Swahili programme is still under development. It is not technologically fully interactive; for example, it does not provide any possibility for teachers to incorporate new lessons to its contents.
- Its current stage of development does not cover the whole language teaching/learning curriculum and it is not a self-sufficient methodology of language teaching/learning.
- The Swahili materials do not utilise networked communication
- A more fundamental problem is that the Swahili programme at its current stage of development is not yet fully interactive. It cannot understand a user's spoken input and evaluate the correct and appropriate forms used. It cannot spot a

student's problems with pronunciation, syntax, or usage; and then it is not sophisticated enough to decide among various possibilities of its built-in data which provide alternatives (e.g. paraphrase, synonyms) as background explanations.

6.4. Recommendations

With regard to the findings from the research I have conducted in this dissertation, the full implementation of these recommendations may not be possible with immediate effect, but steps should be taken to ensure a gradual movement towards implementing these.

6.4.1. About the Swahili course

The sample is small and cannot allow generalisations from the findings. However it is possible to make some recommendations to the Department of Southern African Languages arising from the patterns, trends and tendencies observed from the study. These recommendations are:

- Computers in the multimedia language laboratory do not give access to those students registered in another faculty such as Engineering, while taking another course in the Humanities because they did not have the “right” (electronic security system policy of the university) to access the multimedia Swahili programme. Therefore I recommend that administrative flexibility should allow students from any Faculty/Department who wish to register for the Swahili course to be allowed to do so rather than Humanities’ students only.
- A psychological disadvantage of having CALL in a different venue from the traditional language classroom could be overcome by having CALL sessions in the same venue as opposed to having separate sessions in class and others in the Multimedia language laboratory. CALL is best utilised if it is fully integrated in learning activities that can be pedagogically accommodated in the classroom.
- Language learning laboratory assistants need to understand practices in language learning and teaching in order to help instructors to use the language-learning

laboratory effectively. Research in language learning provides insights to differences in designing learning materials.

- It is useful to keep a record of learners and learning practices for research purposes in multimedia language learning. Reports of data about the students' assessment and programme evaluation can help the teacher evaluate the lesson and spot learners' individual learning difficulties.
- The programme should apply a more creative style of learning.

6.4.2. About the tests

- Teachers should focus on systematic assessment of the language taught in simple tests. That is, they should use oral interviews to gather information about students' language proficiency and make interpretations based on this information. On the basis of these interpretations, teachers should take decisions about the students' needs and take appropriate action to improve their performances in classroom activities.

6.4.3. Further research

This study may provide the following possibilities for further research:

- Grounds for comparative studies with other multimedia language programmes
- Comparison between outcomes of the use the multimedia programme and traditional methods of language teaching/learning
- Extending the sample size in order to validate the findings and make wider generalisations possible.

6.5. Conclusion

On the basis of the findings, the small sample in this study presents evidence to show that communicative activities in language teaching/learning are more effective in the multimedia language laboratory than in the traditional language classroom. However, I would like to suggest that teachers prepare themselves for using modern computer

technology as a tool in teaching a second and foreign language, since language learning is no longer confined to the traditional language classroom. Language teachers should have a clear picture about the differences and similarities between the traditional language classroom and the multimedia language laboratory regarding the procedures of carrying out teaching/learning communicative activities. They should clearly state their goals and the linguistic skills that students should be expected to attain through their learning with the help of computers. All students should keep in mind the purpose for using multimedia programmes. Otherwise, they tend to preoccupy themselves in simple visualisation or reading and listening practice.

The use of the multimedia Swahili programme has become an integral part of the Swahili intensive course therefore the course convenors should enable the students to familiarise themselves with the programme before the course starts. Students encountered difficulties learning through the different components of the programme as it is still undergoing development. In terms of the present study, although the focus was on the new technology of multimedia and language learning, there is still scope for teachers to implement other approaches and methods in addition to using the multimedia facilities.

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APPENDIX A QUESTIONNAIRE

These questions will serve to research learning outcomes of the programme

1. Why have you chosen to learn Swahili? (please give reasons).....
.....
.....
.....
.....
2. Did you know any Swahili before?.....
.....
.....
3. How much Swahili do you know? (please give examples).....
.....
.....
4. Can you say anything in Swahili?.....
.....
.....
5. What language(s) do your parents speak?.....
.....
.....
6. Do you already know another language besides the language(s) of your parents? If so, please say which languages.....
.....
.....
.....
7. What language(s) are you able to read and how well?
not well.....
well.....
very well.....
excellent.....
8. What language(s) do you write and how well?
not well.....
well.....
very well.....
excellent.....
9. What language(s) do you speak and how well?
not well.....
well.....
very well.....
excellent.....

10. What language(s) can you listen to and how well?

not well.....
 well.....
 very well.....
 excellent.....

11. Do you think that multimedia can help you in learning Swahili?.....Yes/ No.....

In what way(s)?.....

.....

12. Have you used a similar Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) programme before? If so, please give some details.....

.....

13. How do you use the multimedia programme to learn Swahili? (please explain your learning methods).....

.....

14. What do you think about the content of the multimedia?.....

.....

15 .Do you find any section(s) of the programme difficult? If so, why? (please give examples).

Why?.....

.....
 Vocabulary?.....

Grammar?.....

.....
 Culture?.....

Pronunciation?.....

.....

16. Which section of the programme did you find effective in helping you learn Swahili?
Vocabulary?.....

Grammar?.....

Culture?.....

Pronunciation?.....

17. What suggestions can you offer which might improve the multimedia Swahili
programme?.....

18. Do you usually try to guess the intended meaning in Swahili if you don't fully
understand the meaning? (please explain).....

19. Do you continue to learn and use Swahili language outside the multimedia language
laboratory?.....

20. Do you have contact with proficient speakers of Swahili outside the multimedia
classroom?.....

21. Would you like to carry on to 2nd year in Swahili if possible? (please give reasons)?
.....

Tuseme kiSwahili
A Basic conversational course
Designed by the Department of African
Languages and Literatures
University of Cape Town

Lesson 2

presented by Zukile Juma
and Julian Flood

Version 1
Oct 1996

Back to menu Back Next Exit

Remember that you can call up a voice over on any yellow print in Pronunciation or Conversation slides (blue or green backgrounds).

Make sure the pointer changes to a hand before clicking – this applies to Action buttons as well!

Lesson 2 Menu

Pronunciation

- Unit 1: Consonants (1)
- Unit 2: Consonants (2)

Grammar

- Unit 1: Personal Pronouns
- Unit 2: Personal Pronouns (2)
- Unit 3: Vocabulary
- Unit 4: Personal Pronouns (3)
- Unit 5: Personal Pronouns (4)
- Unit 6: Personal Pronouns (5)

Conversation

- Unit 1: Introductions
- Unit 2: Intro using plural forms of personal
- Unit 3: Use of Negative pronoun

Cultural context

- 1. Greetings, time of day of Swahili
- 2. Greeting names: Old and new
- 3. Language groups of Africa

Back to menu Back Next Exit

About this lesson...

- You are going to learn how to introduce yourself to someone, and how to ask about them and about others.
- Your pronunciation exercises will help you with the special Swahili consonants.
- In the Grammar section, you will learn about the Personal pronouns, and how they are used in simple positive and negative sentences
- We introduce Noun classes 3-4 & 5-6

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Exercise 2

1
In the dialogue below fill in the missing personal pronouns

A. Bwana
B. Naam

A. Samahani Wewe nani?
B. _____ Bwana-- na wewe?

A. _____ Huyu ni nani? (next to you)
B. _____ ni Bibi Sofi. _____ ni wanafunzi.

C. _____

A. Alaa ' _____ mnakwenda shule garu?
B. Tunakwenda chuo kikuu cha Cape Town. Sasa marafiki ako ni nani?

C. _____

A. _____ anaitwa hivana na bibi
B. _____ wanafanya nini?

A. Wao ni walimu washule ya misingi Wynberg.
B. Kumbe! Haya ! Kwa heri!
A. Kwa heri

**Conversation
(and Personal Pronouns)**

When a Swahili speaker introduces himself to another, a form of sentence is used which has no finite verb. Two forms are possible: one using the copula *ni*, and the other which does not

Mimi ni Juma Mimi Juma!
(I am Juma) (I am Juma)

Wewe ni nani? Wewe nani?
(Who are you?) (You are who?)

Mimi ni Zukile Nani wewe?

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Grammar

The m/mi class (3/4)

This class includes nouns which are the names of trees, plants and other life-associated things. Thus we see such nouns as:

Sing	Plural	Gloss
mti	miti	tree
mchungwa	michungwa	orange tree
moto	mitoto	fire
moyo	miyo	heart
mguu	miguu	leg

We are not going to put these nouns into sentences in this lesson, so just try to memorise the above list and those in the following vocabulary.

Vocabulary No. 7

mti, miti	trees	mbago, wa	relation
mchungwami	orange tree	mbena	down
moto, mitoto	fire	man	yes
moyo, miyo	heart	na	and
mguu, miguu	leg	nyema	good, fine
tunda, matunda	flower	mwaume	male
uwe, mawe	rock	mwanamke	female
mtu, watu	giant	sandara	excuse me
mapa	water	asante	thank you
jani, majani	leaf, grasses	kwa siku	good day
shamba, mashamba	field, garden	poni	evening

5

Translate the following sentences into the plural:

- Mimi mwanafunzi.
- Wewe mzee.
- Sisi ni walimu.
- Yeye si mtoto.
- Ninyi vijana.
- Wao wazazi.

6) Turn the sentences in 5 into questions using your immediate neighbour(s)

Grammar (cont'd)

The ji/ma class (5/6)

There is a variety of nouns found in this class - fruits and parts of plants, quantities, parts of groups and mass and collective nouns. This class also contains some augmentative nouns e.g. jitu is the augmented form of mtu.

Note that most singular forms have no prefix, but all monosyllabic stems do:

tunda	matunda	flower
jwe	uwe	rock
jitu	majitu	giant
	maji	water
jani	majani	leaf, grasses
shamba	mashamba	field, garden

Cultural experience

The "Jahazi" or dhow has plied its trade on this coast for more than a thousand years!

Voyagers like Zheng He have carried Al-Ma'mun, traveller and writer, to the East African shores in the tenth century A.D. on one of his voyages when he recorded some Swahili words, which may have been the first ones to have been written - these are discussed in one of the side panels in a later lesson.

The Swahili consonants (2)

There are four consonants which show a strong Arabic influence - if you pronounce them the Arabic way, you will be called an "mSwahili" - one who speaks well! They are th, dh, gh, and h.

• th - pronounce this like the English "thy"
• the *thabuni*, the *thabuni*

• dh - this is pronounced like the English "thigh"
• the *dhabuni*, the *dhabuni*

• gh - as in Scottish "loch" or Arabic "ghazal"
• the *ghabuni*, the *ghabuni*

• h - this letter is pronounced as a glottal stop, a little like "an heh!"
• the *habuni*, the *habuni*

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Grammar The Personal Pronouns

The correct name for the pronoun type you are about to learn is "absolute" pronoun, to differentiate between it and other forms which you will encounter later on. Like their English counterparts, they can stand on their own without a noun, but they also occur in a form which would sound stilted in the English translation:

Mimi sijui. As for me, I don't know!

Here is the full paradigm:

Mimi (I)	Sisi (We)
Wewe (you - sing)	Siyi (You - pl)
Yeye (he/she)	Wao (They)

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More Grammar

In the conversational practice session, you were shown two forms of sentence without verbs - one using the copula *ni* and the other without. At this stage, we look at sentences with pronouns only.

Most common forms of speech do not use the copula frequently, but when we want to make a negative sentence, then we have to use *si*, which is the negative equivalent of *ni*:

Mimi si Juma! Wewe si mwalimu, wewe mwanafunzi!
(I am not Juma) (You are not a teacher, you're a student)

Yeye si mtoto, yeye kijana!
(He is not a child, he is a young man)

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3

A. Jamani!

B. Bee.

A. Hamjambo?

B. Hatujambo. Na _____ hamjambo?

A. _____ sana Salama?

B. Salama

A. Samahani jamani. _____ walimu?

B. Hapana! _____ wanafunzi.

A. Kumbi?

B. Naam. Na _____ walimu?

A. Ndiyo! _____ walimu.

A. Alaa?

B. Naam!

A. Haya walimu! Kwa herini!

B. Kwa herini vijana!

Personal Pronouns

(Negative forms)

You saw these questions and their answers in the affirmative. Now here we want negative answers - try yourself first, then click on the dots for answers.

Yeye nam? (Who is she?)

(She is not Mrs. S-fia)

Na yeye mwanafunzi? (And is she a pupil?)

(No! She is not a pupil)

Alaa? Yeye jamani? (Is that so? How is she?)

Hajambo, lakini si omu! (She's well, but not too well)

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Personal Pronouns (negative plural forms)

These are the plural forms of the earlier sentences – we've changed them a little where necessary! Say the answers and click the dots to see if you are right!

Nanyi namu?
(Who are you (pl.)?) (We are not Junna and Sofia)

Nanyi walimu?
(are you teachers?) (Not at all, we are not teachers!)

Wao namu?
(Who are they?) (They are not students)

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Max

Min

Vocabulary No. 5

mazizi wazazi	parents	mama	I (1st Pers Sngl)
baba	duck	wewe	you (Sngl)
bure	in vain	eye	she
boma	candle/kraal	asa	we
bida	withness	nanyi	you (plural)
giza	darkness	wao	they
ganu	which?	dehe	can/cannot
ku-piga	hit	namu	himself
nyota	leg	anu	religion

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Max

Min

- A. Jamani! Hamjambo?
B. Hatujambo. Na _____
hujambo?
A. Sijambo Samahani Ninyi
wanafunzi?
B. Hata! _____ (neg)
_____ wanafunzi _____ walimu
A. Alaa?
B. Naam.
A. Asanteni.Na wao walimu?
B. Hapana ! _____ wanafunzi!
A. Kwa heri!
B. Kwa heri!

Answer these in the Negative

Wao namu?
(Who is wazazi?)

Sisi namu?
(Nanyi si walimu?)

Yes namu?
(Nanyi si wanafunzi?)

Njema!

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Next

Max

Min

Vocabulary No. 6.

dawa	medecine	tana	no, even
jana	yesterday	atai	really?
nisi	the day before	sawa	very
juni	tooth	ghafila	suddenly
mtoto	family	ghali	dear, expensive
hata	news	the bature	thany
hura	anger	tu	is are
hata	haste	si	is are not
mtaalamu	please		
thamania	eighty		
mtaalamu	Muslim fan		

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Next

Max

Min

More Personal Pronouns

You have just learnt the first two of the Personal Pronouns, Mimi and Wewe - now here is the 3rd. Person pronoun in use:

Yeye nani?
(Who (is) she?)

Yeye Bibi Sofia.
(She (is) Mrs. Sofia.)

Na yeye mwanafunzi?
(And is she a pupil?)

Hata! Yeye Mwalimu.
(No! She is a teacher.)

Alua! Yeye hajambo?
(Is that so? How is she?)

Hajambo sana.
(She's very well.)

Now for the plural forms!

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Map

Personal Pronouns (plural forms)

These are the plural forms of the earlier sentences we've changed them a little where necessary!

Ninyi nani?
(Who are you (pl)?)

Sisi Juma na Sofia.
(We are Juma and Sofia.)

Ninyi walimu?
(Are you teachers?)

Hata! Sisi wanafunzi.
(Not at all, we are pupils.)

Wao nani?
(Who are they?)

Wao wanafunzi.
(They are students.)

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Map

Try to answer these:

Wao nani?

Wao wanafunzi.

Wewe nani?

Mimi mwalimu.

Yeye nani?

Yeye mwanafunzi.

Ninyi nani?

Sisi wanafunzi.

Sisi nani?

Ninyi walimu?

Mimi nani?

Wewe hajambo?

Njema!

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Map

2

Answer the questions in the following dialogue by completing the blanks.

A Mzee!

B Naam!

A Samahani. Wewe mwalimu?

B Ndiyo _____ ni mwalimu. Na _____ mwalimu?

A Hapana _____ (neg) _____ mwalimu. _____ ni mwanafunzi.

B Kumbe?

A Naam!

B Haya mwalimu! Kwa heri!

A Kwa heri!

The Swahili consonants (1)

The first four consonants we are going to look at are

b, d, g, and j

There is a special way to pronounce them: when they are **not** preceded by a vowel

b. This is pronounced with a slight intake of breath.
baba, bure, boma, bila

d. Like b, there is an ingressive flow of air.
debe, damu, dau, dawa

g. These sounds are not found in English, so practise them.
gani, gaga, gogo

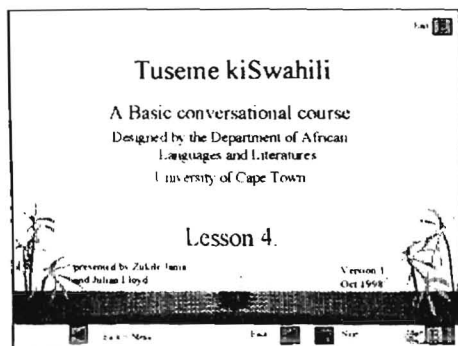
j. They are called 'implosives' because the air is sucked in.
jina, juu, jua, jamaa

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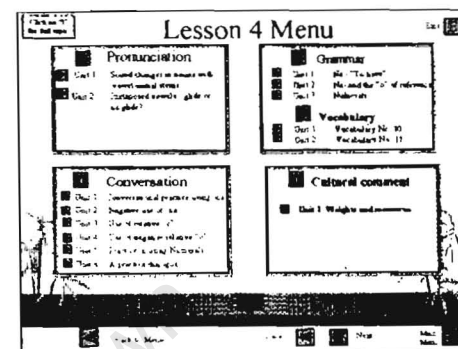
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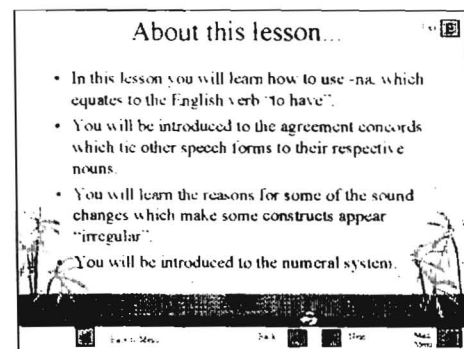
Map



Refer to the notes attached to Lesson 1 if you need help using the Multimedia.



Green buttons take you through a complete topic. Red buttons are for single Screens, and will return you to the Menu.



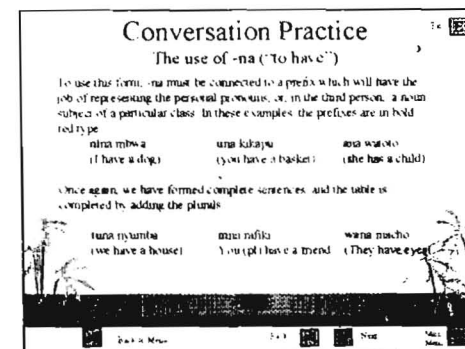
Exercise 4 /Zoezi 4. (Somo la nne)

4.1. Complete the following dialogues by filling in the blanks:

4.1.1

4.1.2

4.1.3



Grammar

-the numerals (cont'd)

From twenty to one hundred, the names of the 10 multiples are mainly Arabic, with the exception of 60, 70 and 90:

20	ishirini	ishirini na moja...	21
30	thelathini	thelathini na moja...	32
40	arobaini	arobaini na tatu...	43
50	hamisini	hamisini na nne...	54
60	sitini	sitini na tano...	65
70	sabini	sabini na sita...	76
80	themanini	themanini na saba...	87
90	tisini	tisini na nane...	98
100	mia, mia moja	mia moja na moja, na mbili... 101, 102	
1000	elfu moja	100,000	isiki moja

Conversation

A practice dialogue

Habari gani, ndugu yangu?

Salama! Salama!

Nyuma ni nani?

Mina watoto?

Mina watoto wangu?

Mko wapa wata?

Asante! Kwaheri!

4.4 Insert the appropriate agreements and noun class prefixes in the following sentences.

eg: Mwalimu __ na __ tabu (cl.8)
Mwalimu ana vitabu.

Conversation

- practice in using numerals

Soma ngapi?

Wanawake wangu?

Watu wangu?

Vitabu vangu?

Nitakuwa ngapi?

Nitakuwa ngapi?

Vocabulary No. 10.

ndawa	dig	nyaya	nyuma
rafiki	friend	nyulu	nyulu
nyuma	eye	nyulu	nyulu
chondo vy...	pat. vessel	nyulu	nyulu
nyulu	white	nyulu	nyulu
nyulu	oil	nyulu	nyulu
nyulu	poth	nyulu	nyulu
nyulu	fireplace, kitchen	nyulu	nyulu
nyulu	board (lumber)	nyulu	nyulu
nyulu	book	nyulu	nyulu
nyulu	wall	nyulu	nyulu

Pronunciation

Some sound changes

Apart from the basic pronunciation rules which we explained to you in earlier lessons, there are a number of sound changes brought about when speech sounds juxtapose themselves in a certain combination. For example, the way that the English negative "no" becomes "no" in front of "possible". We saw the same thing happen with "class 9 nouns" giving us *mbegu* instead of "mbegu".

First, look at Class 7 and 8 prefixes when they are found before nouns beginning with vowels, particularly "u", "o", or "a". They may change (not all do) into "ch" and "v" respectively. Thus we get examples like:

Uta-bunda? Nunocho? Kuni-chape? Vata-vyenge? (Have you a pot?) (I have one) (A white thing) (white things)

Pronunciation (cont'd)

Now, if you look at the table of relative forms of the *na*-copula on the last grammar sheet, you will see that the form that the suffix *na* takes is dependent on the subject prefix for the class in question. If the subject prefix is "u" as in Class 4 and "o" as in Class 6, then the suffix is separated from the preceding vowel in the sound "y" which we call a glide.

If it were the subject prefix of an "o" class (2 or 6) or "u" class (3 or 4), then the "y" glide would not be given and the pronunciation of the *na* would be different. I illustrate the difference between these sounds by

choosing within

choosing within

choosing within

choosing within

choosing within

choosing within

choosing within

choosing within

choosing within

4.3 Fill in the appropriate the missing parts in the following sentences

eg. Mimi nina mke. lakini wewe huna

- na mke, lakini wewe na
- Huyu bwana na mke, lakini yule na.
- Yeye na mke, lakini mimi na
- Sisi na wapenzi, lakini wao na
- Ninyi na vitabu, lakini mimi na
- Wale vijana na pesa, lakini hawa na.
- Wewe na mchumba, lakini yule dada na.
- Huyo bibi na shida, lakini juma na.
- Sofi na gari, lakini Ali na
- Hiki ebuo na wanafunzi wengi, lakini kile na

Conversation

Use of *-na* in the negative
When replacing the copula with a relative, the relative suffix *-na* is deleted. The construct is thus the same as you used for a sentence with the subject present. Match up the following, adding *-na* in both cases. Check back for answers!

Q	A	Q	A
Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?	Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?
Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?	Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?
Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?	Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?
Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?	Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?
Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?	Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?
Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?	Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?
Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?	Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?
Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?	Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?
Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?	Uta rafiki?	Tuna maita?

Grammar - the Numerals

The Swahili numerals are generally easy to learn, but you have to remember that some take agreement concord when used with nouns. We provide these numerals of possible bantu origin. Here is how we count to twenty.

numba	mbili	latia	mezi	lano
1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10
kumi na moja	kumi na mbili	kumi na mitatu	kumi na nne	kumi na tano
11	12	13	14	15
16	17	18	19	20
kumi na saba	kumi na nane	kumi na tisa	kumi na kumi	kumi na kumi na moja

Use of the Demonstrative (cont'd)

Now use huyu with as many Class 1 nouns as you can remember. Here are some of them:

Huyu ni mwanafunzi (This is a student)	Huyu ni mzee (This is an old person)	Huyu ni Baba (This is Father)
Huyu ni mwanachama (This is not a girl)	Huyu ni mwanazi (This is not a parent)	Huyu ni Juma (This is not Juma)

Now for the plural form (hawa):

Hawa ni wanafunzi (They are students)	Hawa ni wazee (They are elders)	Hawa ni wata (They are people)
Hawa ni wanachama (They are not girls)	Hawa ni wazazi (They are not parents)	Hawa ni walamu (They are not)

Grammar

about Demonstratives...

It is quite difficult to understand how the demonstrative works in any language. Try to think of it as a system of position and reference. Huyu "this" refers to something right here, huyo "that" to something referenced to a given spot or place, and yule "yonder" to a distant place. There are, of course, different forms for the plural, and for each class. Here is the paradigm for those classes which we have already introduced:

Class 1	huyu	huyo	yule	Class 2	hawa	hau	wale
Class 3	hii	hii	ale	Class 4	hii	hiyo	ile
Class 5	hiki	hiki	ile	Class 6	haya	hayo	yale
Class 7	hiki	hiki	ile	Class 8	hivi	hiyo	vile
Class 9	hii	hiyo	ile	Class 10	hizi	hiyo	zile

3.2 Sing: Huyu baba ni mwalimu.
Pl. :Hawa kina baba ni walimu.

Using the above sentences turn the following ones into the plural:

1. Huyu baba ni mzee.
2. Huyu bibi ni kijana.
3. Yule dada si mwanafunzi.
4. Kaka huyu ni mwalimu.
5. Huyu shangaazi si mzee.
6. Yule bwana nijirani yangu.
7. Huyu ndugu ni Mkenya.
8. Huyu mjomba ni mkali.
9. Yule mama watoto ni kijana.
10. Huyu baba ni Taliani.

The Demonstrative

- other positions

What you have been using up to now is called the "first position" demonstrative - now we will look at the other two positions, "there" and "yonder".

Huyu ni mwalimu (This is a teacher)	Yule ni mwanafunzi (Over there is a pupil)
Yule mwalimu ni nani? (Who is yonder boy?)	Yule? Yule ni Saidi (Over there! That's Saidi)

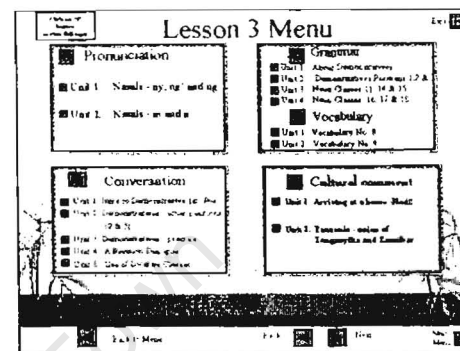
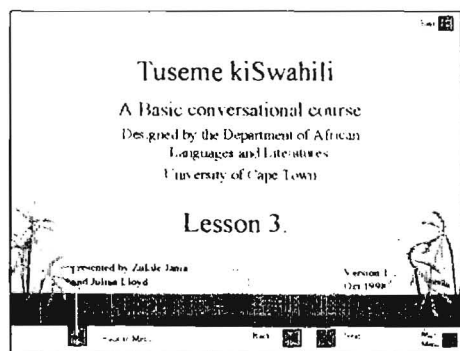
Huyu ni Shabani, lakini nani huyu? Huyu ni Daudi Mwingi!
(This is Shabani, but who's that? That is Daudi Mwingi)

Grammar - the Demonstrative (cont'd)

A little about word order in Swahili before we try an exercise. The order of words around a noun is somewhat flexible, but normally the following is the standard: Noun, possessive pronoun (if any), relative pronoun (if any), demonstrative (if any), numeral (if any), adjective (if any), verb (if any). Any change in this order is due to the emphasis on the last word - watawa wazali wacha dhidi, watawa wazali dhidi.

Now here is a short list of nouns - try to apply the demonstratives for all their positions (stick on each column for the answers):

	1st Pos.	2nd Pos.	3rd Pos.	Gloss
mtu	huyu	huyo	yule	person
walimu	hawa	hau	wale	teachers
kitu	hiki	hicho	kile	thing
kijana	huyu	huyo	yule	youth
vikapu	hivi	hiyo	vile	baskets
mchungwa	hau	hau	ale	orange tree
mguso	hii	hiyo	ile	leg
jicho	hii	hiyo	ile	eye
mawe	haya	hayo	yale	rocks
nyumba	hii	hiyo	ile	house



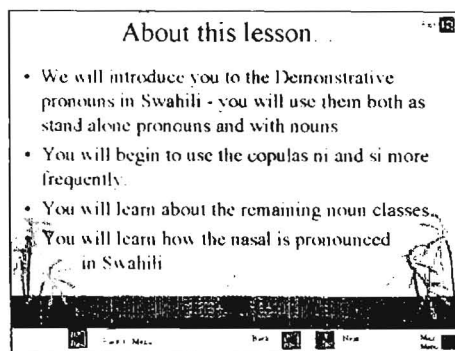
There is a pre-arranged order but you don't have to follow it particularly if you are re-visiting the programme.

Click on Green for the whole topic, or on the Red buttons to play any specific topic.

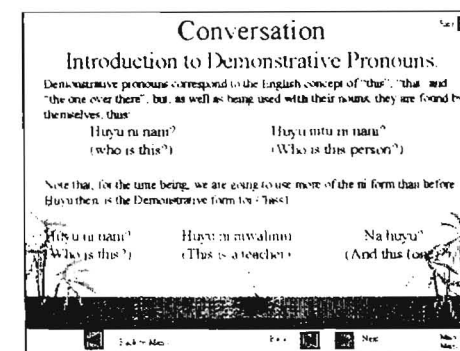
Somo la tatu (EXERCISE 3)

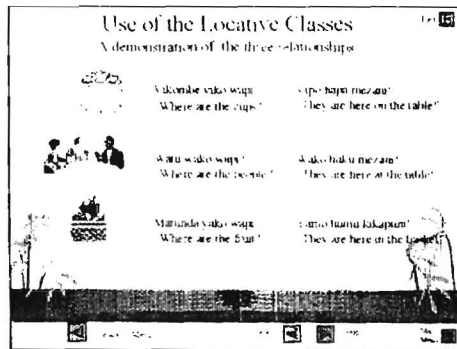
3.1 Fill in the correct first position demonstratives for the nouns in the following sentences

1. _____ ni kijana nzuri
2. _____ si kijana mzuri.
3. _____ watoto wanacheza mpira
4. Nyumba _____ inapendeza
5. Kiti _____ kimevunjika
6. Choo _____ ni kisafi lakini _____ (3rd position) ni kichafu
7. Maua _____ vananukia sana
8. Jiwe _____ ni kubwa sana
9. Mawe _____ (3rd position) yana mavumbi.
10. Mahali _____ panapendeza
11. Chumba _____ si changu
12. Kikombe _____ si kikubwa sana
13. Nyumba _____ (3rd position) haina mlango
14. Bibi _____ simchumba wake
15. _____ si mwezi wa pili ni mwezi wa mmoja.
16. Ukuta _____ ni mrefu
17. Kuta _____ ni ndefu.
18. Kusoma _____ ni kuzuri
19. Visu _____ ni vikali na vyembamba
20. Miguu _____ ni minene



As before, the green and blue screens allow you to click on any yellow text in order to hear an audio recording. Do this as often as you need to!





3.5 Correct the following sentences

1. Mtoto huu ni mrefu.
2. Watoto huyu ni wanene.
3. Kisu hili ni kikali.
4. Miguu hichi si minene.
5. Jicho hii ni jekundu.
6. Kusoma huku ni kuzuri.
7. Macho hawa si madogo.
8. Chumba hizi ni ndogo.
9. Kkuta huku ni ndefu.
10. Wale wazee si wazee.

